

EXPOSURE, ATTITUDES, MOTIVATION  
AND ACHIEVEMENT IN ESL  
AMONG MALAY LEARNERS:  
A SOCIO-PSYCHOLINGUISTIC STUDY

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In memory  
of  
my late mother and father  
for all their sacrifice

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## SUMMARY

The purpose of the research was, firstly, to investigate the standard of competence and the degree of some learner variables affecting competence, i.e. exposure, attitudes and motivation, amongst Malay learners of ESL. Secondly, the purpose was to investigate the strength of the relationships between the variables under study.

The sample consisted of 441 Form Four pupils from selected schools in Selangor, Peninsular Malaysia, who had learnt English for the past nine years. The instruments used for data collection were an achievement test, an exposure scale, an attitude scale and a motivation scale.

The analysis of data was carried out by using the crosstabulation and correlation procedures. The statistical test of significance used was the chi-square.

The analysis of quantitative data revealed that:

- (1) The standard of English competence among the pupils was low.
- (2) Pupils in urban schools performed better in English than pupils in rural schools.
- (3) Generally, the pupils received a low amount of exposure to written English, radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English.

- (4) Their attitudes towards English and its speakers were generally favourable.
- (5) Their motivational orientations, desire to learn and motivational intensity were strong. Their integrative motivation seemed slightly stronger than their instrumental motivation.

The correlation analysis revealed that:

- (1) The relationships between competence and exposure to written English, radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English were positive and significant.
- (2) The relationship between competence and attitude towards English was positive and significant. But, the relationship between competence and attitude towards its speakers was insignificant.
- (3) The relationships between competence and integrative motivation, desire to learn and motivational intensity were positive and significant. However, the relationship between competence and instrumental motivation was insignificant.

Overall, the results did not always display high correlations, and therefore in some cases, diminished the importance of the independent variables as predictors of competence.

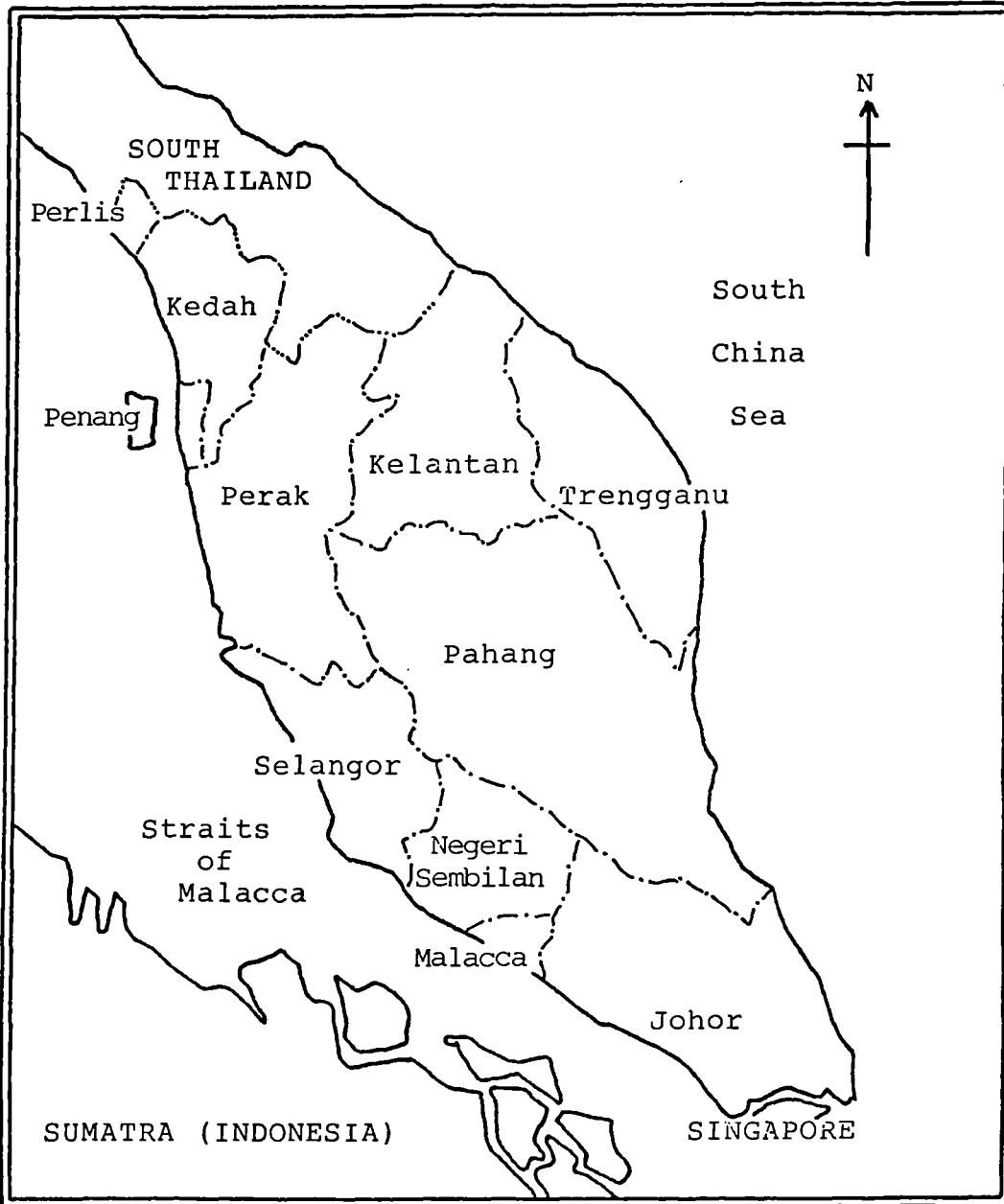
## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Teachers at all levels of education in Malaysia are disheartened by the deteriorating standard of English competence among pupils. They are concerned by the fact that English, in spite of its status as a second language (L2), in reality has moved towards that of a foreign language (FL). The main factor that contributes to this, they argue, is the existing language policy which has affected the pupils' amount of contact with the language and in turn affects the pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn the language. But, to be able to determine how true it is to say that the low standard of English competence is the outcome of the present language policy, it is necessary at the outset to understand the racial, language, and English language teaching/learning situations of the country.

### 1.1 RACIAL, LINGUISTIC AND RELIGIOUS BACKGROUNDS

Malaysia (see Maps 1 and 2), with an area of about 130,000 sq. miles, is composed of Peninsular Malaysia (formerly Malaya and now sometimes referred to as West Malaysia) and the states of Sabah and Sarawak on the north-west coast of Borneo (sometimes referred to as East

MAP 1: PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

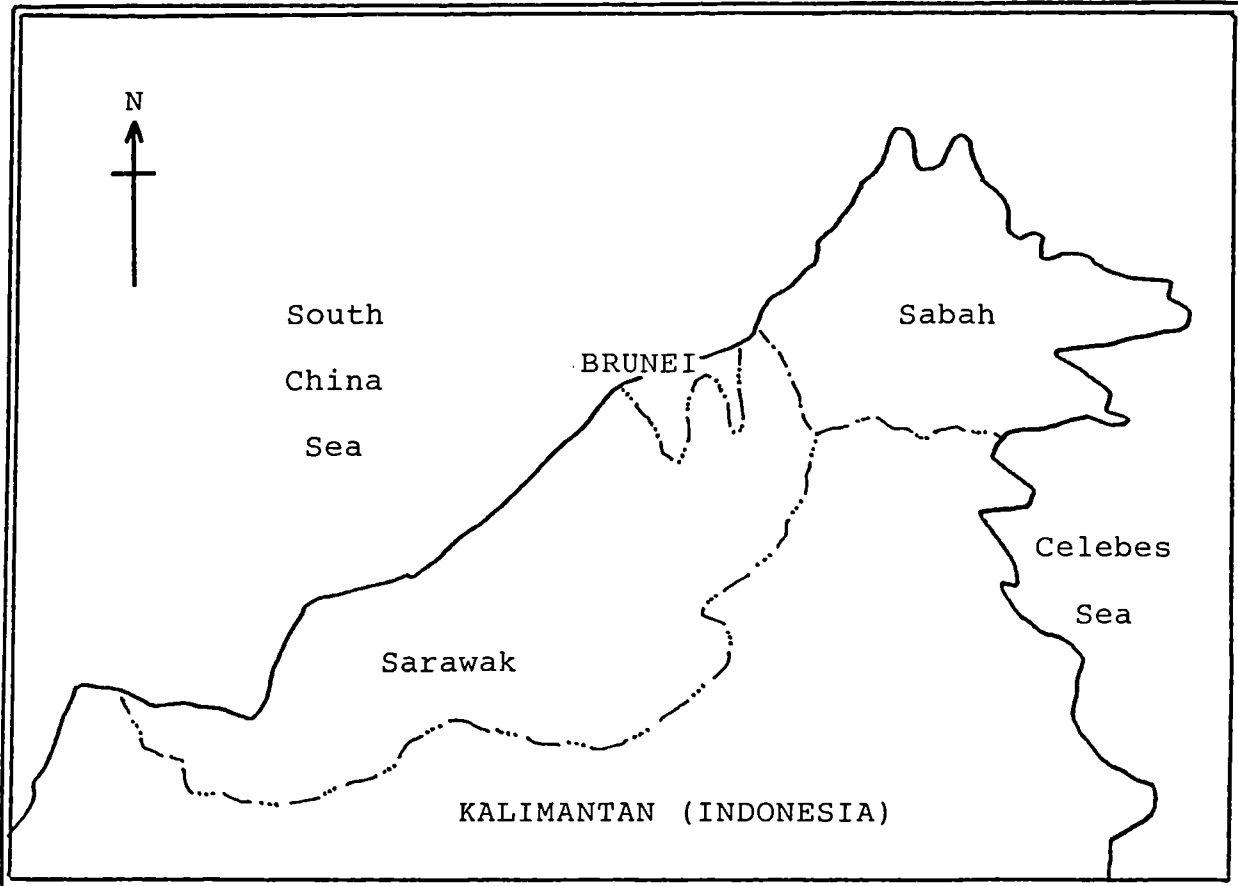


Key:

State boundary      - - - - -

National boundary      - - - - -

MAP 2: SABAH AND SARAWAK (EAST MALAYSIA)



Key:

State boundary      - . . . . .

National boundary    - . . . . .

Malaysia). The total population of the country in 1984 was about 15.279 million; of these, 12.658 million were in Peninsular Malaysia, 1.443 million in Sarawak, and 1.178 in Sabah (*Information Malaysia 1985*). The population growth rate is about 2.5% annually.

The population of Peninsular Malaysia is composed of three main ethnic groups: Malays (53%), Chinese (35%), Indians (11%) and others including Pakistanis, Arabs, and Eurasians (1%). The population of Sarawak is composed of Malays (19%), Chinese (31%), Ibans (30%), Bidayuhs (9%), Melanaus (5%), other indigenous groups (5%), and others (1%). The population of Sabah includes Kadazans (26%), Muruts (4%), Bajaus (11%), Malays (5%), other indigenous groups (19%), Chinese (20%), and others, mostly Indonesians (15%) (*Malaysia Year Book 1975*).

The Malays, who form the largest indigenous groups, are united by a common language (Malay) and a common religion (Islam). Other indigenous groups have their own vernaculars and beliefs. Among them, there are Muslims, Christians and pagans.

The Chinese and Indians form the largest immigrant communities. The Chinese, mostly from south China, speak their own respective dialects, especially Cantonese, Hokkien, Hakka, Teochew, and Hainan. The majority of them are Buddhists. The Indians, mostly from south India, speak Tamil and Telugu. Most of them are Hindus.

The Eurasians, a very small community domiciled in Malacca, speak Portuguese creole. They are the

descendants of Portuguese colonialists of the 16th and 17th century Malacca who have undergone the process of cultural assimilation through intermarriage and social contact. These people are mainly Christians.

There is yet another small community, sporadically distributed in the urban areas, which speaks English as its first language (L1). This community has somehow discarded its mother-tongue due to intermarriage and social contact.

Malay (or *Bahasa Malaysia*) is the national language of the country. Of the many languages spoken, it emerges as the most dominant among the people, spoken extensively not only in Malaysia, but also in Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore, as well as southern Thailand and southern Philippines by over 150 million people (Kwee 1976). It is therefore regarded as the sixth largest language in the world (Alisjahbana 1974). It has been the lingua franca of the regions since the early centuries of the Christian era.

Apart from the standard variety (Payne 1970; Winstedt 1961), its pidgin variety - popularly known as bazaar Malay - which has Malay as its base and a mixture of English, Chinese and Tamil words and syntactical features (Hassan 1974) is also extensively used for inter-group communications among uneducated Malaysians.

English is officially the L2 of the country. It is the common language among English-educated Malaysians, a minority group residing chiefly in the urban areas (Omar

1975). Other languages have never acquired any status other than that of the vernacular restricted only to their own speech communities.

## 1.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

English has had a long history in the education system of Peninsular Malaysia. With its role as an official language, it was once the medium of instruction in English schools and in local tertiary institutions. Currently, with its status being relegated to that of an L2, it is only taught as a subject in schools.

For convenience, an overview of the historical development of the teaching and learning of English will be made based on three periods, i.e.:

- (1) Pre-independent period
- (2) Post-independent period (1957-1969)
- (3) 1970 and after

### 1.2.1 Pre-independent Period

#### 1.2.1.1 Government and Mission English Schools

The first English school in Peninsular Malaysia was the Penang Free School established in 1816, 30 years after the British acquisition of Penang (Kee & Hong 1971; Omar 1976). After 1909, when British political influence had



extended throughout the country, English education was introduced, though somewhat sparingly and only when the need arose (such as for the recruitment of junior officers especially for clerical jobs), in several emerging urban centres. In fact, the British policy as early as the 1870s and thereafter was against the indiscriminating and unrestrained development of English education. Frank Swettenham, when Resident of Perak in 1890, was quoted as saying:

'The danger to be guarded against is an attempt to teach English indiscriminately. It could not be well taught except in a very few schools, and I do not think that it is at all advisable to attempt to give to the children of an agricultural population an indifferent knowledge of a language that to all but the very few would only unfit them for the duties of life and make them discontented with anything like manual labour. At present the large majority of Malay boys and girls have little opportunity of learning their own language, and if the government undertakes to teach them this, the Koran, and something about figures and geography (especially of the Malay Peninsula and Archipelago), this knowledge, and the habits of industry, punctuality and obedience that they will gain by regular attendance at school will be of material advantage to them, and assist them to earn a livelihood in any vocation, while they will be likely to prove better citizens and more useful members than if imbued with a smattering of English ideas which they would find could not be realized' (*Perak Annual Report 1890*, cited in Seng 1975: 15).

Special provisions were, however, made for the sons of Malay rulers and chiefs who would '...become useful future British allies...for their education in English' (Seng 1975: 19).

Apart from the government, missionary bodies such as

the London Missionary Society, the Roman Catholic Mission, the Methodist Mission and the Church of England also deserve credit for the expansion of English education in the country (Kee & Hong 1971). The mission schools, which were open to children of all races and creeds, provided moral instruction based on the tenets of Christianity, apart from providing general education. Being of such character, until lately these schools were not at all appealing to the Malays who were Muslims.

Both the government and mission schools provided a similar course of education on Western lines leading to the School Certificate Examination, conducted by the Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate. To pass the examination, i.e. to obtain a full certificate, it was necessary to obtain at least a 'pass' in the English language paper. After school, the successful pupils would join the government service or work with European companies.

The English schools (either government or mission) were fee-paying and, in addition, pupils who attended these schools had to buy their own books and other basic equipment. As the schools were mostly in the urban centres, they were dominated by the Chinese, the majority of whom incidentally lived in towns. 'As such, it is not surprising that until today professionals and educationists are in the majority, Chinese' (Omar 1982: 17) (see Table 1).

Due to economic and geographical factors, the

English schools were beyond the reach of the ordinary Malays, the majority of whom were rural dwellers with meagre income. If they chose to send their children to these schools they not only had to worry about money for school fees and books, but also travelling expenses and, possibly, accommodation. Even if there were Malays who could afford to, the school enrolment was allowed to increase only '...within the limits of an overall policy of directing the great majority of Malay children into the Malay schools rather than into the English schools' (Seng 1975: 82). By 1910 there were increasing demands for English education from the Malay community and although there were British administrators who were sympathetic towards these demands, the policy of the day held sway. Consequently, the number of Malay pupils learning, and in turn, the number of Malay teachers teaching, in English schools, fell very far below that of other races (see Tables 2 and 3).

TABLE 1: DIVISION ONE GOVERNMENT OFFICERS BASED  
ON RACIAL GROUPS AS ON 1ST NOVEMBER  
1968

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OVERALL:

Total	3,392	(excluding Armed Forces & Police)
Malays	1,142	36.26%
Non-Malays	2,250	63.74%

ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICE:

Total	1,221	
Malays	706	57.8%
Non-Malays	515	42.2%

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE (EXCLUDING EDUCATION):

Total	1,998	
Malays	385	19.2%
Non-Malays	1,613	80.8%

EDUCATION OFFICERS:

Total	173	
Malays	51	29.9%
Non-Malays	122	70.1%

POLICE:

Total (not specified for security reason)		
Malays		38.76%
Non-Malays		61.24%

ARMED FORCES:

Total (not specified for security reason)		
Malays		64.5%
Non-Malays		35.5%

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Source: *The 13th May Tragedy*. Kuala Lumpur:  
National Operation Council, 1969

TABLE 2: ENROLMENT OF MALAYS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS IN THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES (PERAK, SELANGOR, NEGERI SEMBILAN, & PAHANG)

YEAR:	NO. OF MALAYS:	TOTAL ENG SCH ENROLMENT:	PERCENT MALAYS:
1919	758	8,456	8.9
1920	934	9,208	10.1
1921	1,345	10,105	13.3
1922	1,612	10,450	15.4
1923	2,055	11,594	17.7
1924	2,310	12,806	18.0
1925	2,556	13,768	18.5
1926	2,707	14,509	18.6
1927	2,772	16,283	17.0
1928	2,794	16,185	17.2
1929	2,817	17,113	16.4
1930	2,905	17,997	16.1
1932	2,650	17,477	15.1
1933	2,713	16,417	16.5
1935	2,540	16,496	15.4
1937	2,558	17,161	14.9

(Source: Seng 1975: 82)

TABLE 3: ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS

YEAR:	TOTAL:	PERCENTAGES					
		Mal:	Chi:	Ind:	Erp:	Ers:	Oth:
1920	372	2	25	34	20	18	1
1921	409	2	24	29	20	17	8
1922	416	2	24	29	21	16	8
1923	441	3	25	28	19	17	8
1924	481	4	26	27	18	17	8
1925	511	4	27	24	18	15	12*
1926	541	3	25	31	17	16	8
1927	589	3	26	31	17	16	7
1928	616	2	26	37	17	17	1
1929	656	3	26	35	17	15	4
1933	622	4	29	32	16	17	2
1935	562	4	29	32	17	17	1
1936	579	4	30	31	16	17	2
1937	597	4	30	31	17	17	1

Abbreviations: Mal....Malay                      Chi....Chinese  
                   Ind....Indian                      Erp....European  
                   Ers....Eurasian                     Oth....Others

\* The marked increase in 'others' is probably accounted for by the inclusion of 'Ceylonese' which in other years were classified under Indians

(Source: *ibid.*: 115)

### 1.2.1.2 The Vernacular Schools

Apart from the English schools, the government also established Malay vernacular primary schools meant for the rural Malays (as was implied in Section 1.2.1.1). Priority was given by the British '...to providing public education for the Malays as the indigenous people of the country' (Gullick 1969: 260). The schools, which were free and maintained by government, prepared the brighter children for entry into English schools and gave those who preferred village life basic instruction so that they could be more intelligent farmers and fishermen than their parents had been (Haron 1978; Omar 1979; Winstedt 1966). On completion, a few of the children would be selected as teachers to teach in the same schools or elsewhere.

The Chinese and Indians who came in large numbers into the country (taking advantage of the British open-door policy towards immigration) to work in the tin mines and rubber estates, had their own vernacular schools. The Chinese vernacular schools had been largely endowed or self-supporting and self-governing, with their own curriculum and textbooks oriented towards China which were 'too nationalist in tone to make for the children's adaptation to their Malayan environment' (Winstedt 1966: 133). The Chinese schools extended up to the secondary level.

The Tamil vernacular schools were mostly situated on

estates. 'Proprietors of estates were required by law to provide primary education for the children of their labourers who were predominantly Tamils. The rest were government schools in towns, meant for government labourers' children' (Gullick 1969: 262-263). There was no secondary education in Tamil.

However, English was not taught at all in the vernacular schools. It was only in the 1950s that some effort, though somewhat less heartily, was taken to teach English as an L2 in these schools. This was partly due to popular demand from the public and partly in accordance with the recommendations of several education reports made over the years, i.e. the Central Advisory Committee on Education Report of 1950, Report of the Committee on Malay Education of 1951 (also known as the Barnes Report), Report on the Barnes Report on Malay Education and the Fenn-Wu Report on Chinese Education of 1951, and Report of the Education Committee of 1956 (also known as the Razak Report). All the reports emphasized the use of English, apart from Malay, as the medium of instruction in schools and, in the Chinese and Tamil vernacular schools, the teaching of English as an L2 (Abu Bakar 1984; *Central Advisory Committee on Education Report 1950*; Mason 1957; *Report of the Education Committee 1956*).

Thus, at the time of achieving independence, Malaya inherited from the British four school systems as they were then known, i.e.:



- (1) The English school system, with English as the medium of instruction, open to all;
- (2) The Malay school system, with Malay as the medium of instruction, meant especially for the Malays;
- (3) The Chinese school system, with Chinese as the medium of instruction, meant especially for the Chinese;
- (4) the Tamil school system, with Tamil as the medium of instruction, meant especially for the Indians.

In spite of the rapid pace in their development, these four systems of education left behind themselves a long lasting negative effect on the country today. They separated the Malays from the non-Malays as from the very beginning the government took no steps to orientate the influx of immigrants towards the local institutions. They were administered rather separately and were left to live freely among themselves in their own 'world' with their own cultural traditions. As a result, there still exists today a certain attitude among some non-Malays - an attitude inclined towards racial polarization which causes difficulty in nation building (Abu Bakar 1984). This, in my opinion, is merely due to their still being 'alien' to the local cultural traditions.

### 1.2.1.3 The Place Of English In Society

The Peninsular Malaysian masses of the British days, however, did not speak English but instead used Malay (standard or pidgin) for interaction. Even the English-educated few spoke Malay fluently. Conversely, English had been the working language of government - except at village level and on the east coast of the peninsula where Malay had always been dominant (Gullick 1969). It was a ticket for personal enhancement of an individual - it was needed, among other things, for further studies, offers of scholarships and appointment in government departments. English education was perceived by parents at large as '...the channel to some modicum at least of economic security if not always of marked social mobility' (Seng 1975: 51).

Unfortunately, English education was accessible only to a small section of the population - the urban people, the well-to-do who could afford the expenses, and the few promising Malay children selected from Malay schools who would be given grants and free places in schools. Rural children were denied the opportunity to obtain English education by geographical and economic factors. Therefore, English had never really reached the Malaysians at large.

### 1.2.2 Post-Independent Period (1957-1969)

Peninsular Malaysia achieved her independence from the British on 31st August, 1957. Before independence, there was no national language in the country while English at the time played its role as the official language. Hence, to fulfil the need of the new nation, Malay was made the national language as well as the official language and English was given its new status as an L2. Nonetheless, English still maintained its role as the official language alongside Malay since most government officers and administrators of the day were English-educated. Subsequently, English schools remained functional and, as before, English education continued to be perceived as a status symbol in society.

However, the new government was aware that the various school systems of the British days, with their own curriculum, had segregated the various races in the country. This was, of course, detrimental to national unity. Education was seen as one of the means of unity and to achieve this aim the Razak Report therefore recommended that a common syllabus orientated to a Malayan outlook should be used in all the school systems (*Report of the Education Committee 1956*). This report was later reviewed by the Education Review Committee of 1960 (known as the Rahman Talib Report). The most salient point of both reports was that, although the Malay-medium education should extend to the secondary

level, the English-medium secondary education should continue for an indefinite period. To prepare pupils from the Chinese and Tamil schools to continue their secondary education, a one-year 'transition class' was established in all English and Malay secondary schools. They could spend the preliminary year in the transition class learning either one of the official languages - Malay in Malay secondary schools or English in English secondary schools. On completion, they could proceed to the secondary first year. The first year Malay secondary education was started in 1958, the first Malay-medium lower certificate examination, i.e. the Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (SRP), was conducted in 1960, and the first Malay-medium school certificate examination, i.e. the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM), in 1962 (Abu Bakar 1984; Kee & Hong 1971).

When the Federation of Malaysia was formed in 1963, at first including Singapore as well, recommendations laid down in both the Razak and Rahman Talib reports were extended to other parts of the country. However, due to some political differences, Singapore quit the federation in 1965 to become a sovereign state and nation.

In 1967, on completion of the ten-year period for English to continue functioning as an official language, the National Language Act was passed and Malay was made the sole official language. English then ceased to function in the role it had held since the colonial days (Gullick 1969; Omar 1982; Saad 1977). The process of

phasing out of the English school system in gradual stages was then begun in 1968. Initially, a few subjects of the Arts were taught in Malay and in later years this was followed by other subjects (Abu Bakar 1984).

But this was implemented rather reluctantly, since political leaders generally, though in their speeches tending to be in favour of Malay-medium education, in practice were generally in favour of English. Even their public speeches were frequently delivered in English; Malay was used only when the situations demanded it. They still sent their children to English schools since they were unsure of the avenues Malay education would lead their children along. In other words, the leaders themselves were uncertain about the future of Malay-medium education.

### 1.2.3 1970 and After

The fourth general election held in May 1969 was followed by a racial clash (known as the 13th May Tragedy) which accelerated the process of change begun in 1968. The clash forced the government to review the objectives of the national education of the country with the hope that this would overcome some of the weaknesses in the education system which might - directly or indirectly - have triggered the tragedy. A new policy was implemented by which the English school system was gradually phased out to become completely Malay (Abu Bakar 1984; Kee &

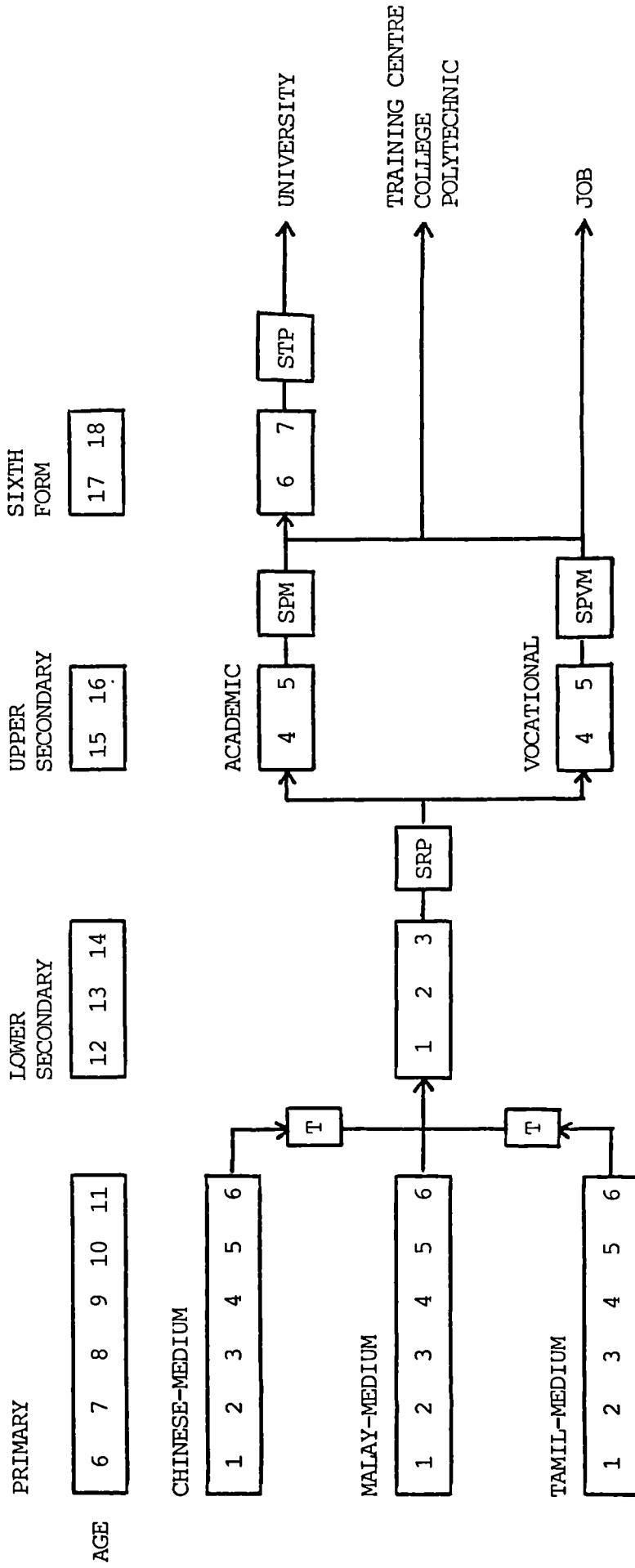
Hong 1971). So long as the English school system remained, polarization in society between the well-to-do English educated and the unfortunate non-English educated was inevitable. Omar points this out:

'The majority of the rural people were Malays while the urban people were mostly Chinese. A greater part of the Indian population was found in rubber plantations where they were employed as estate workers. The existence of the English medium schools proved to be a divisive factor which engendered a social cleavage between the urban and the rural people. This cleavage was not only interracial in the sense of a split between the Malays and the Chinese, but was also intraracial as a socio-educational gap was formed between the urban and the rural Malays' (Omar 1976: 3).

The gradual phasing out of the English school system was started in January 1970 with the beginning of the school year, as from Standard One. Hence, from that date, English came to occupy its rightful position as an L2 in the Malaysian school system (Ya'kub 1969). As from 1978, the lower certificate examination was wholly conducted in Malay, in 1980 the school certificate, and in 1982 the higher certificate. Therefore, by 1982 the English school system ceased to exist. And by 1985 most of the final year first degree courses in local universities were conducted in Malay. English was taught merely as a subject in schools. The Chinese and Tamil vernacular school systems were, however, maintained. Figure 1 indicates the current educational pattern in Malaysia as a result of the change.

Sabah followed the same step starting the change

FIGURE 1: EDUCATIONAL PATTERN IN MALAYSIA



KEY:

- T Transition class
- SRP Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (Lower Certificate of Education)
- SPM Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (Malaysia Certificate of Education)
- SPVM Sijil Pelajaran Vokasional Malaysia (Malaysia Vocational School Certificate)
- STP Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran (Higher School Certificate)

(adapted from: Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 1975: 98)

concomitantly with Peninsular Malaysia. However, in Sarawak, the process was begun only in 1976 due to lack of resources and manpower trained in the Malay-medium. The process is expected to be complete by 1988 by which time at the end of the year all pupils will sit for the higher certificate examination, i.e. the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran (STP), through the medium of Malay.

In any case, to the Malaysians at large, the pressure of prestige and importance of English is still felt even today. The language continues to function as the language of science and technology since most reference materials in local tertiary institutions are still in English. It is a world language by means of which contacts with other countries - especially in the diplomatic and commercial fields - are conducted. English is still used as a means of communication among the English-educated and a first language for those who have discarded their mother-tongue. It also serves as a social identification and a symbol of urbanization. 'There is no denying that amongst the legacies of the British colonial government in Malaysia, the most valuable is the English language' (Omar 1982: 53). Although there was a certain degree of antagonism towards the former British rulers, this does not involve antagonism towards the English language; and the abolition of the English school system was merely for the sake of national unity.



### 1.3 THE ISSUE: CURRENT ENGLISH LANGUAGE SITUATION

#### 1.3.1 The Standard of English Proficiency

The formal status of English within the education system has been clearly spelled out. Actually, however, it is a genuine L2 only to a handful of English-educated urbanites. To them, the deteriorating standard of English as a result of its changing role is very distressing.

Nonetheless, the decline in the qualitative aspect of English proficiency is evidently inevitable because the present education system is not anymore producing English-educated learners of English as a second language (ESL). The English-medium pupils of the pre-1970s were extensively exposed to English both within and outside schools. On rare occasions, some schools even forbade the use of languages other than English when in school premises to the extent of imposing some sort of punishment on any pupils who spoke them.

Conversely, the majority of Malay-educated learners of today see English as nothing more than a school subject without any immediate need. They can dispense with English entirely and still get themselves promoted from one level of schooling to the next. This, teachers generally believe, undoubtedly colours their attitudes towards the subject which in turn affect their examination result. As an example, in the 1973 Standard

Five Assessment Test, only 43% of the total Malay-medium candidates throughout the country passed the English paper and in 1977 the figure dwindled to 17% (Mohd Hashim 1982). Similarly, in the SPM common Communication English paper conducted for the first time in 1977, only 10% of the total Malay-medium candidates throughout the country passed the paper as against 60% of English-medium candidates who passed (Chandrasegaran 1979).

The low standard of English among Malay-medium pupils was once commented by Datuk Haji Abdullah Badawi, then Minister of Education:

*'Buat masa ini adalah jelas sekali kepentingan bahasa Inggeris telah begitu diabaikan sehingga mutu dan juga penggunaannya di kalangan rakyat Malaysia telah menurun' (Utusan Malaysia, April 12, 1985: 6).*

Translation: Currently it is clear that the importance of English has been neglected to the extent that its quality and use among Malaysians have declined.

The change in the status of English in the country has had two effects, i.e. its recession and its spread. Firstly, when it was the official language, the working language of government as well as the medium of instruction in English schools, the standard of proficiency was high. Now that its status has been relegated to that of an L2 and being taught only as a subject in school, the standard of proficiency recedes progressively. Secondly, during its heyday, the teaching and learning of the language was confined chiefly to the urban society and did not really reach the Malaysian

masses. But, its present status has brought about its geographical spread, i.e. being taught as an L2 to every pupil in the country.

But the importance of English in several matters has always been highlighted. As far back as 1956, for example, the Razak Report recommended that English be learnt at both the primary and secondary school levels so that no pupil should be at a disadvantage in the matter either of employment or of higher education locally or overseas as long as it was necessary to use the English language for these purposes (*Report of the Education Review Committee 1956*). The 1961 Education Act made the teaching of English compulsory in all Malay-medium schools; on that account, the teaching of English as an important L2 in these schools was continued (Ya'kub 1969). And, as reiterated by the government from time to time, every measure will be taken to ensure that English is taught as a strong L2 to enable the country to keep abreast with scientific and technological development in the world and to participate meaningfully in international trade and commerce (Omar 1976; *Third Malaysia Plan 1976*).

### 1.3.2 English in Public Examinations

Currently, there are three public examinations conducted by the Ministry as follows:

- (1) Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (SRP), i.e. the lower certificate examination, taken at the end of the

third year of secondary schooling;

- (2) Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM), i.e. the school certificate examination, taken at the end of the fifth year of secondary schooling for those who have passed the SRP;
- (3) Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan (STP), i.e. the higher certificate examination, taken at the end of the seventh year of secondary schooling for those who have passed the SPM.

All these examinations offer full certificate (unlike the British open certificate) to those who have achieved the minimum required grades in several approved subjects taken at one and the same sitting, one of which must be Malay (or the General Paper in Malay in the case of STP). It is compulsory for all candidates to take English in the SRP and SPM but, as mentioned in Section 1.3.1, it is not compulsory for them to pass the subject so long as they obtain a sufficient number of passes in other subjects for the purpose of certification (Lembaga Peperiksaan 1980; *Peraturan dan Panduan Sukatan Pelajaran untuk Peperiksaan SRP 1981*). In the STP, no such English language requirement is imposed as English is not taught in Sixth Form classes.

### 1.3.3 The English Language Programmes in Schools

The change in the education system has considerably reduced the learners' amount of exposure to English. To meet the new situation, several committees were set up by

the Ministry of Education responsible for the planning of the English programmes, i.e. (a) the primary school ESL programme, (b) the transition class ESL programme, (c) the lower secondary school ESL programme and (d) the upper secondary school ESL programme. The first three stages adopted the structural approach (see, for example, Fries & Fries 1961, Hill 1967, Lado 1964, Pittman 1967, and Rivers 1968) while the last stage adopted the communicational approach (which has gained popularity today and widely discussed, among them, in Brumfit 1983, Candlin 1981, Criper 1976, Johnson & Porter 1983, Widdowson 1978, Wilkins 1976, and Yalden 1983). These programmes, although developed at different times and by different people, are linked on a developing line (Rodgers 1979). Briefly, the final objective of the English programmes is to achieve the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 1979; Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 1980a; Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 1980b).

Besides the syllabuses, several handbooks for teachers as well as textbooks for pupils have been produced as supporting materials. The education media services are providing extensive exposure to English through their Educational Radio and Television Programmes. In-service training is provided for teachers in the form of week-end and full-time courses in local training centres. Some are sent overseas for training in

the teaching of English as a second language (TESL) or as a foreign language (TEFL). In addition, the British Council and the British Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) are also assisting the Ministry in the advancement of TESL.

#### 1.3.4 English at the Tertiary Level

In conformity with the education policy, English is not anymore part of the requirement for admission into local tertiary institutions. At the same time, these institutions are free to determine the level of English required for their students, depending on the course of studies taken. 'There is no absolute level of English proficiency required for higher education. Universities can require anything from extensive reading in English to nil' (Criper 1977: 5).

However, all institutions have their own ESL programmes to cater for the needs of their students. The programmes ranged from the very basic to the most advanced, adapted to the varying proficiency levels of learners. The primary concern of teaching English is not so much to enable students to read or to write effectively, but more especially to enable them to extract information from reference materials which are mostly in English. In other words, the emphasis is on English for special purposes (ESP). Generally, the learners' achievement in speaking and writing, as it is

in school, has not always been satisfactory (Adnani 1979; Augustin 1979; Cheong 1976; Wong, Khalid & Bennett 1976; Vijchulata & Lee 1984).

### 1.3.5 Some Negating Factors in the Learning of ESL

As mentioned earlier, pupil achievement in English is extremely low in spite of all the efforts made by the Ministry to improve the situation. There are, of course, a number of factors that must have contributed to this, all of which can be fitted into Tucker's three broad domains of L2 learning and teaching (Tucker 1978), i.e.:

- (1) The sociocultural context
- (2) The instructional setting
- (3) The individual level

#### The Sociocultural Context:

The focus in this context is the education system. In the system, the need for ESL in society has been given emphasis, but the system itself is devised and implemented in such a way that opportunities for contact with the TL among pupils are greatly reduced. At the same time, the system fails to pay adequate attention to the pupils involved in the learning of the TL. In the urgency to set goals for ESL based on the high standard of English among the pre-1970 English-medium pupils, the system has neglected the needs of children from deprived homes or from rural areas whose immediate need for

English is almost negligible; whose home, school, and social environment are divorced from the use of the language.

#### **The Instructional Setting:**

Four variables seem to be of interest here, i.e. the common content syllabus, allocation of time for teaching/learning, examination, and the teacher.

The common content syllabus for every pupil, regardless of their learning ability, has to be covered by the teacher. The pace of teaching cannot be slowed down for the under-achievers. Every item in the syllabus is taught and equal weight is given to all for fear that an item not taught may come out in the examination (Rodgers 1979). What matters to education administrators and parents alike is the percentage of passes in public examinations (Keong 1979). Therefore, it has become a common practice among teachers that the focal point of classroom teaching is the syllabus and not the pupil.

In addition, the allocation of class time for English teaching/learning is clearly insufficient. Surely, within the constraint of 200-300 minutes per week as the sum total of exposure to English, nothing much can be achieved by the pupils.

In public examinations (i.e. SRP and SPM), the status of English was mentioned in Sections 1.3.1 and 1.3.2 - compulsory but not a prerequisite for



certification.

Finally, there are still many schools, especially in the rural areas, which have insufficient or no qualified teachers of English. Among them, their English proficiency ranges from just a 'pass' in the SPM English paper to a university degree in English. A majority do not even have any TESL training and are specialists in other disciplines. The shortage of teachers is worsened by the rapid increase in the number of the school-going population. With a class of about 30 or 40 pupils and with several classes of English to teach, the workload for teachers is tremendous. Definitely, this has great repercussions on some, if not all teachers, whose expectation of the learners is high.

#### The Individual Level:

In this domain, it is the learner that has to be accounted for. At one extreme, there is a handful of pupils proficient in English and, at the other extreme, there are the poorly proficient ones who form the majority. For the latter, their attitudes are influenced by the language learning situation which, for them, is an FL learning situation. 'The only exposure to English for most of the pupils is during the English lesson and the environment in which they live can range from indifferent to hostile towards the use of English' (Rodgers 1979: 12). The learners are actually in a 'diminishing English

language environment' (Keong 1979: 4).

Examination priorities also determine the learners' attitudes - they would rather spend more time on other subjects which are compulsory for certification. They therefore give low priority to English which, although a compulsory subject, has no impact on examination result.

#### 1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The research therefore attempts to examine the issue, i.e. why learners (with particular reference to upper secondary Malay-medium pupils) fail to achieve the acceptable level of competence in English in spite of having learned the language throughout their school career. Teachers often remarked that Malay-medium pupils are weak in English and they attributed this to the pupils' insufficient amount of exposure to the language, unfavourableness of attitudes and lack of motivation. Further, there is a consensus of opinion among teachers that rural pupils are not performing as well in English as urban pupils.

Such remarks can neither simply be accepted nor rejected until research into the problem is carried out in the local situation. For this purpose, quantitative data relating to competence as the dependent variable and exposure, attitudes and motivation as the independent variables were gathered for analysis. Such data would also make it possible to determine the extent of the

relationships between the dependent and the independent variables as predictors of competence. Studies done in other countries have shown the presence of associations between the dependent and independent variables. To what extent the result can be generalised to the current ESL situation in Malaysia has yet to be seen.

The data would therefore make it possible to answer the following questions that guide the research, with confidence:

- (1) Does the standard of English competence among Malay-medium pupils in the selected schools indicate under-achievement?
- (2) Is there a difference in the standard of English competence between pupils in rural and urban schools?
- (3) Are the pupils sufficiently exposed to English?
- (4) Are attitudes in the learning of English among the pupils sufficiently favourable?
- (5) Is motivation in the learning of the language among the pupils sufficiently strong?
- (6) Are pupils highly exposed to English more competent in the language?
- (7) Are pupils with favourable attitudes towards the learning of English more competent the language?
- (8) Are pupils strongly motivated to learn English more competent in the language?

It is hoped that answers to these questions would provide a picture of the present ESL learning situation

after the implementation of the new education policy in 1970 and after the complete phasing out of the English school system in 1980.

## 1.5 HYPOTHESES

Preceding the investigation of hypotheses, the research first sets out to investigate several assumptions with regard to the quantitative aspects of the dependent variable (i.e. competence) and the independent variables (i.e. exposure, attitudes and motivation) as follows:

- (1) The standard of English competence among Malay-medium pupils is generally low.
- (2) There is a difference in the standard of English competence between pupils in rural and urban schools.
- (3) The pupils receive a low amount of exposure to (a) written English, (b) radio and television English and (c) unscripted spoken English (in face-to-face interaction).
- (4) The pupils are unfavourable in their (a) attitude towards the TL and (b) attitude towards the TL speakers.
- (5) In the learning of English, the pupils are insufficiently strong in their (a) instrumental motivation, (b) integrative motivation, (c)

desire to learn and (d) motivational intensity.

Second, the research sets out to investigate the hypotheses with regard to the relationships between the dependent and independent variables as follows:

- (1) The higher the exposure to (a) written English, (b) radio and television English and (c) unscripted spoken English that the pupils receive, the more competent they are in the language.
- (2) The more favourable the pupils' attitudes are (a) towards the TL and (b) towards the TL speakers, the more competent they are in the language.
- (3) The stronger the pupils' (a) instrumental motivation, (b) integrative motivation, (c) desire to learn and (d) motivational intensity, the more competent they are in English.

## 1.6 LIMITATION

Realising the immense effort required to study all the possible variables affecting L2 learning, the scope of the research is thus confined to selected learner variables such as exposure to the TL, attitudes towards the TL and its speakers, and motivation in the learning of the TL. In the context of ESL in Malaysia, these variables have received considerable attention from teachers and the general public who are concerned about

the state of English proficiency among learners. In confining the scope to these variables, it is assumed that given sufficient exposure to English and supported by favourable attitudes and strong motivation, Malay-medium pupils would perform significantly better in the language, at least, if not equal to the former English-medium pupils.

Learner variables such as aptitude, i.e. a stable and permanent ability possessed by an individual for learning (Wilkins 1972) and intelligence, i.e. an in-born, all-round intellectual ability partly due to physical inheritance and partly the result of environment (Schofield 1972, Spooncer 1983) are both taken as fixed and therefore are of less interest here. Likewise, anomie, i.e. the feeling of dissatisfaction with one's own culture due to one's tendency to identify oneself to a new group whose language one has nearly mastered (Gardner & Lambert 1972; Jakobovits 1971; Lambert et al. 1963) and ethnocentrism, i.e. the 'belief in the superiority of one's own cultural group or society and corresponding dislike or misunderstanding of other such groups' (Kirkpatrick 1983: 432) and cultural allegiance and personality factors are also of less interest in the Malaysian ESL context. Therefore, given the time constraint, all these variables are excluded from the study.

Finally, the phrase a socio-psycholinguistic study in the title is not meant to imply that this research

adopts full sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic approaches. It concentrates only on exposure as a sociolinguistic variable and attitudes and motivation as psycholinguistic variables, all of which are simply referred to as learner variables.

### 1.7 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

As mentioned in Section 1.3.3, the Ministry has taken measures to ensure that English is taught as a strong L2 to enable pupils to use the language for effective communication and as a key to wider experience. Efforts made so far have centred around the improvement in teaching, syllabuses, textbooks and other instructional materials but, unfortunately, learner achievement still fails to meet the Ministry's expectation. Therefore, there is a necessity to conduct research examining the roles of learner variables - in this case exposure, attitudes and motivation - that account for the success and non-success in English learning.

Studies on exposure, attitudes and motivation conducted so far are confined mostly to the Canadian and American settings with reference to the learning of French and English as L2s or FLs. But the importance of French to the English-speaking Canadians or Americans, or alternatively, of English to the immigrants or foreign students in those countries, is not quite the same as the importance of English to Malaysians. In Malaysia, or

even in other ASEAN countries, English is only important in international trade, foreign affairs and for further studies overseas. Therefore, conclusions from research obtained in Western settings cannot be generalized with confidence to the ASEAN ones.

Thus, there is a need for similar research to be undertaken in the Malaysian setting so that these learner variables can be taken into account in the formulation of policy for language instruction. Moreover, a search through the literature has indicated that studies on this aspect of learner variables are scanty and it is necessary to fill the vacuum. All the while, the Ministry has been too concerned about the instructional aspects of learning ESL and learners who are directly involved in learning the language have been neglected (Rajagopal 1976; Rodgers 1979). Too much attention is focused on the mastery of the surface linguistic aspects of the TL amongst pupils. Paradoxically, it is the learner variables which are likely to attract the interest of learners more than the purely linguistic aspects (Tucker & Lambert 1973). Therefore, the research might provide insight into the problems of under-achievement in English among pupils. Undoubtedly, such knowledge is of practical value to policy makers and practising language teachers.

Studies on exposure to a particular language have shown that the amount of exposure that an individual learner receives depends very largely on the language



situation of the society wherein the learner is. The language situation itself, to a full extent, is the outcome of language planning in the society (Tollefson 1981); a change in the latter causes a change in the former. In the same way, attitudes and motivation are subject to change, though the process of change is a gradual one. Adjusting the amount of exposure to the TL among learners, changing their attitudes or providing them with sufficient motivation might enhance language learning. Thus, the study could contribute in some way towards solving the problem of under-achievement in ESL among Malay-medium pupils.

## CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

'Every year millions of people start learning a second language, but very few succeed in mastering it' (Mackey 1965: 107). Among the learners involved, there appears to be great variation in the mastery of the language, '...ranging from no knowledge at all to native-like ability' (Spolsky 1969: 271). This has, however, created interest among experts which consequently, over the years, led to a considerable amount of research into accounting for the success and non-success in the achievement of L2 proficiency. Numerous variables have been proposed as significant and these can all be grouped into four broad categories: individual variables, instructional variables, sociocultural variables, and linguistic variables (Mackey 1965; Richards 1979; Spolsky 1969; Strevens 1978; Tucker 1978).

The variables are interrelated in very complex ways and '...there is no reason to suppose that any single factor is solely or even largely responsible for success' (Strevens 1974: 153). The process of learning as a whole is so complex '...that a number of elements, of very different kinds, have to be taken into account, and that in some cases a shortcoming in one or more of these elements can be largely compensated by unusual excellence in others' (Strevens 1978: 181).

Among the multitude of variables that come into

play, this research is interested in looking into the following:

- (1) exposure to the TL (through written materials, radio and television, and unscripted spoken language)
- (2) attitudes (towards the TL and its speakers)
- (3) motivation (instrumental, integrative, desire to learn and motivational intensity)

Although the role of exposure, attitudes and motivation in L2 learning has been the subject of research for already more than two decades, most of the researches conducted so far are confined to settings outside Malaysia. The amount of research relating to the variables in the context of ESL in Malaysia, on the other hand, is relatively scanty, in spite of their being the subject of everyday debate.

Before proceeding any further, it would be helpful if distinctions between the terms acquisition and learning and between second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) are provided as they are used in this chapter and elsewhere in the thesis. The dichotomy between the two terms in each pair is not always clear-cut since in the literature they are frequently used interchangeably.

Acquisition is identified as a subconscious process fostered by exposure to and interaction with linguistic input in the natural environment which results in a knowledge of a language. It takes place in the infant and the young child at a time when he is acquiring

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other skills and much other knowledge about the world. Learning (in this case L2 learning), on the other hand, is a conscious representation of pedagogical rules through either formal instruction or self-study programme which results only in knowing about the language. It normally starts at a later stage when many other physical and mental processes of maturation are complete or nearing completion (Corder 1973; Krashen 1977). While the switch from acquisition to learning is thought to occur at around puberty, it is also believed that adults both acquire and learn language (Krashen *ibid.*), even though it is difficult to predict when an adult acquires a language and when he learns it (Harmer 1983). Clearly, it is difficult to draw a distinction between the two terms and both have often been freely used with reference to the L1 and L2 (Brumfit 1984; McDonough 1981; Tollefson 1981). However, this research will adhere to the definitions provided by Corder and Krashen above.

L2 is defined as the language which is not the mother-tongue (L1) of any group within the country where it is being learned, but which has some internal, social function, e.g. for education and government (Crystal 1980; Wilkins 1972). FL is the language being learned which is not the mother-tongue of any group within the country and has no internal communication function either (Wilkins 1972). Here, L2 will be used to refer to both L2 and FL and the distinction between them will be made only when necessary.

## 2.1 EXPOSURE

### 2.1.1 The Role of Exposure in Language Learning

In language learning, exposure (or its synonyms 'practice opportunities' or 'natural language settings' [Seliger 1977]) refers to the sum total of contacts with the TL that a learner receives, both in verbal and written forms. Exposure to the L2 differs from exposure to the L1 in that firstly, for the former, exposure is limited whereas for the latter, exposure is unlimited. Secondly, in L2 learning the learner has the choice of whether or not, and to what extent, to expose himself to the TL, while in L1 acquisition exposure is automatic and one can hardly imagine a normal child retreating from language interaction.

There is agreement among psycholinguists that, in L1 acquisition, exposure is of crucial importance in determining success. This is clearly indicated in the answer to the question 'Who acquires language?' provided by Ingram:

'The nativist answer to the question is: all human beings, by virtue of the inborn universals, and no sub-humans, for the same reason. There are two conditions: there must be no organic defects and there must be a small amount of exposure to language.

'The interactionist answer is: human beings, provided there is no serious organic defect, and provided there is a rich experience of language communication between the child and others, preferably in a context of emotional security. Interactionists leave the question about sub-human capacities open' (Ingram 1975: 222).

Clark and Clark appear to agree with Ingram. 'At the very least, there must be some innate mechanisms that allow one to learn in the first place. At the same time, children will not acquire language unless they are exposed to it' (Clark & Clark 1977: 298).

According to Kennedy (1973), a child who begins to acquire his L1 is normally exposed to a rich linguistic environment, consisting of a range of unsimplified adult grammatical and lexical items, many of which are incomprehensible to the child. 'No two children are exposed to the same primary linguistic data, or the same amount of such data, and yet despite such different experience and wide differences in intelligence, almost all children are able to crack the code of the linguistic system of their culture and learn to understand and produce sentences' (Kennedy 1973: 68-69). The acquisition of the L1 takes place within the context of a long period of physical and cognitive development and of socialization; that language is acquired in the context of a community of speakers.

The importance of exposure in L1 acquisition has lately been re-emphasized by Steinberg:

'...the nature of the speech and environment input which children receive is especially contrived to assist language learning and that unfortunate children who have been exposed to language mainly through television or by overhearing adults' conversation do not acquire significant language knowledge' (Steinberg 1982: 157).

McArthur presents the same view:

'We can assume that human infants without birth problems of a serious kind or defects passed on genetically, fed and loved and introduced into society in ways which most of us would consider usual, do learn to talk and to listen, responding intelligently to what they hear' (McArthur 1983: 10).

And he continues:

'The cardinal question nowadays about child language acquisition, however, relates to basic human nature: is the skill essentially programmed genetically, or is it learned socially - or, indeed, is it a combination of both? The general assumption today is that every human child has an innate disposition towards language and possibly even some "wiring" as regards certain universal elements in language, but that just what particular form develops will depend on the unique social events that surround the child. Such is the balance of nature (heredity) and nurture (environment)' (ibid.: 11).

As mentioned earlier in this section, exposure as one of the conditions for L1 acquisition holds equally true for L2 learning. If children are exposed to the L2 in the same way as they are exposed to the L1, greatest success will be achieved since, being in the 'natural' L2 learning situation, the pressure to acquire the TL so as to control the environment is indeed tremendous (Wilkins 1972). But this should not be taken to imply that both processes are similar. Ravem, in emphasizing the importance of exposure and at the same time the difference between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, points out:

'The situation of the learner of a second language is clearly different from that of the L1 child. The most obvious difference is that the task of the foreign learner is not to learn

"language", which he already possesses and the knowledge of which must affect his acquisition of a second language. The process of learning the second language might therefore conceivably be qualitatively different. Nor is he very often exposed to "primary linguistic data" in the sense that an L1 learner is, but rather to carefully graded language items presented in small doses for a few hours a week' (Ravem 1974: 132).

Similarly, in Kennedy's opinion (Kennedy 1973), the amount of exposure to the TL that an L2 learner receives in class is certainly generally much less than the amount he receives in acquiring the L1. The L2 learner is typically a part-time learner. Apart from the limited amount of time he is exposed to the L2, how the time is spent is also critical. Instead of having a rich linguistic environment, the L2 learner is usually exposed to selected phonological, syntactical, lexical, and thematic items. It is the teacher who decides and arranges the sequence of the presentation of these items to the learner.

Clearly, even though there is a similar condition between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, i.e. exposure, the amount of exposure itself is, indeed, different. The amount received by those learning the L2 is far more limited than that received by children acquiring the L1.

Dulay et al. use the term language environment to refer to the varieties of L2 that the learner is exposed to. Their definition of the term:

'The language environment encompasses everything the language learner hears and sees in the new language. It may include a wide variety of situations - exchanges in restaurants and stores, conversations with



friends, watching television, reading street signs and newspapers, as well as classroom activities - or it may be very sparse, including only language classroom activities and a few books and records' (Dulay et al. 1982: 13).

And, in stressing the importance of language environment, they state:

'The quality of the language environment is of paramount importance to success in learning a new language. If students are exposed to a list of words and their translations, together with a few simple readings in the new language, they will perhaps be able to attain some degree of reading skill in language, but listening and speaking skills will remain fallow....If one is exposed only to classroom drills and dialogues, one may acquire substantial mastery of classroom communication skills but still remain at a loss in other areas of social discourse. And of course, with no exposure at all, no learning can take place' (ibid.).

Dulay et al. also make a distinction between macro-environmental factors and micro-environmental factors. Macro-environmental factors refer to the overall features of the language environment that surrounds the learner. There are four features that appear to directly affect the rate and quality of L2 acquisition, i.e.:

- (1) Naturalness of the environment, i.e. the degree to which the focus of communication is on its content rather than on its linguistic form. When the focus is on the content of the communication, as in the case of conversation between two people, the environment is natural. When the focus is on the form of the language, such as in explaining any aspects of the

language or classroom drills and exercises which require conscious linguistic knowledge or manipulation of linguistic items, the environment is formal

- (2) **The learner's role in communication:** The role varies depending on the manner in which the learner participates. In one-way communication, the learner listens or reads but provides no verbal responses. In restricted two-way communication, the learner listens and responds either non-verbally or not in the TL. In full two-way communication, the learner responds in the TL.
- (3) **Availability of concrete referents, i.e.** subjects and events that can be seen, heard, or felt while they are being talked about.
- (4) **TL models, i.e.** the TL users that the learner chooses as models.

Micro-environmental factors refer to features or characteristics of specific structures of the language the learner hears, i.e.: (1) salience - the degree of visual or auditory prominence of an item; (2) frequency - the number of times a learner is exposed to a particular item or structure; and (3) correction, either systematic or random.

The importance of language environment emphasized by Dulay et al. is also implied by Harmer:

'There seems to be little doubt that comprehensible input does help the acquisition process. This type of input shows students how

language is used and gives them examples of 'new' language that they will later want to have available in communication. It also seems true that the more a language learner uses language to communicate, the better he becomes at communicating....' (Harmer 1983: 32).

The last sentence in Harmer's statement also indicates the importance of practice in L2 learning. In fact there is a consensus of opinion among language learning theorists and practising language teachers that, in L2 learning, the amount of practice that a learner is willing to put in is crucial in determining success. Language is learned through use in that the learner must be actively involved in trying to communicate in real situations; rich experience of the language is essential (Ingram 1978). The more the exposure to the TL there is (e.g. trips abroad to a country where the TL is spoken natively, family members speaking the TL at home) the greater will be the chances of attaining proficiency (Briere 1978). Perhaps the following points by Politzer (1965) would sufficiently support this claim:

- (1) Irrespective of the teaching methods used, language learning needs a tremendous amount of practice and perseverance. It is impossible for one to understand a language without listening to it a great deal and impossible for one to learn to speak a language without speaking it.
- (2) Whatever the disadvantage of lower language aptitude may be, it can be overcome by sufficient practice and exposure.

### 2.1.2 Social Contacts and Language Planning as Determinants of Language Exposure

Discussion on exposure to the TL will not be complete without taking into account the involvement of social influences in L2 learning, namely social contacts and language planning. Firstly, the degree of exposure to the TL is determined by the nature of contact that takes place between two social groups, referred to by Schumann (1978) as the L2 learning group and the TL group, who are in contact situation, but who speak different languages. Certain social factors can either promote or inhibit contact between the two groups and thus affect the degree to which the L2 group learns the TL. Among the factors proposed by Schumann are:

- (1) **Social dominance patterns:** If the L2 learning group is politically, culturally, technically, or economically superior (dominant) to the TL group, it will tend not to learn the TL. If the L2 learning group is inferior (subordinate) to the TL group, there will also be social distance between the two groups, and the L2 group will tend to resist learning the TL. If the L2 learning group and the TL group are roughly equal politically, culturally, technically, and economically, then there is the likelihood of a more extensive contact between the two groups, and the acquisition of TL by the L2 learning

group will be enhanced.

- (2) **Three integration strategies - assimilation, preservation and acculturation:** If the L2 learning group assimilates, i.e. gives up its own life style and values and adopts those of the TL group, contact between the two groups is maximized, thus enhancing acquisition of the TL. If the L2 learning group chooses preservation as its integration strategy, i.e. maintains its own life style and values and rejects those of the TL group, social distance between the two groups is created, making it unlikely that the L2 learning group will acquire the TL. If the L2 learning group acculturates, i.e. adapts to the life style of the TL group but maintains its own life style and values for intragroup use, acquisition of the TL will take place at varying degrees.
- (3) **Enclosure:** If the two groups share the same churches, schools, clubs, recreational facilities, crafts, professions, and trades, enclosure will be low, contact between the two groups is enhanced, thus acquisition of the TL by the L2 learning group is facilitated. If it is the contrary, enclosure will be high, contact between the groups is limited, thereby opportunities to acquire the TL is reduced.
- (4) **Cohesiveness and size:** If the L2 learning group

is cohesive, its members will tend to remain separate from the TL group, and if the L2 learning group is large, intragroup contact will be more frequent than intergroup contact. Such situations will reduce the opportunities for acquisition of the TL.

- (5) **Congruence or similarity:** If the cultures of the L2 learning group and the TL group are similar, social contact is more likely and second language learning will be facilitated.
- (6) **Intended length of residence:** If the L2 learning group intends to remain for a long time in the TL area, contacts between the two groups are likely to develop extensively, thus promoting the L2 learning.

Another proponent of the role of social contacts in L2 learning is Mackey who says:

'Since language is essentially a social phenomenon, the social influences on its acquisition are numerous and interrelated in complex ways. It is the play of these influences on the growing mind that results in the learning of the first language; social influences are also responsible for the learning and maintenance of second language' (Mackey 1965: 112).

Mackey is of the opinion that the manner and skill with which the learner uses the TL are affected by the groups of person with whom he continually uses the language and the situations in which he is placed. The groups or contacts are enumerated as follows: (1) those

with whom the learner lives (the home group), (2) those near whom the learner lives (the community), (3) those with whom the learner works (the occupational group), (4) those with whom the learner learns (the school group), (5) those of the same national background (the ethnic groups), (6) those with whom the learner prays (the church group), (7) those with whom the learner plays (the play group), (8) such non-personal and passive contacts as radio, television and the cinema and (9) such contacts with the written language.

The nature and degree of language exposure as determined by these social influences, on the other hand, is apparently related to certain institutional contexts called domains, i.e. the contexts in which one language variety is more likely to be appropriate than another (Fishman 1964; 1968). Domains are taken to be constellations of factors such as locations, topics, and participants. A typical domain would be the family domain, wherein conversation with family members is almost always confined to everyday topics. Domain analysis is related to diglossia (Ferguson 1977; Fishman 1970), and some domains are more formal than others. In a diglossic community, the low language, i.e. the dialect variety, is the one selected in the family domain; the high language, i.e. the standard variety or, to take Fishman's extended concept of diglossia, the official language, is more often used in the formal domain,

perhaps education (Fasold 1984). The status of a particular language is therefore very much dependent on its domains of use.

The arguments presented thus far indicate the presence of a relationship between exposure and social contacts. Apart from this, there is also strong evidence indicating the relationship between exposure and language planning as well as language policy (an area of language planning). Language planning refers to all conscious, deliberate efforts to affect the structure and function of language varieties (Ferguson cited in Tollefson 1981). Language policy, on the other hand, refers to conscious governmental efforts to affect the structure and function of language varieties (Fishman cited in Tollefson 1981). Language acquisition is the direct result of language planning (Tollefson 1981).

Observation has shown that the spread and recession of a particular L2 in a particular country are the result of its language planning. This is the case of, among others, Dutch in Indonesia (Alisjahbana 1974) and English in India (Fasold 1984; Dakin 1968) and Malaysia (Omar 1982), and English and French in some African countries (Tiffen 1968; Wilkins 1972). Society would provide the teaching of a particular L2 whenever the need arises, as decided in its language planning (Tucker 1978) and spelled out in its language policy. Usually, as stated by Wilkins (*ibid.*), the need for the L2 exists in multilingual countries wherein a sufficiently dominant



language to be the national language is lacking. There may be one but, for some reason, it is generally unacceptable. Normally, the chosen L2 has some historical connection with the country as in the case of former colonies. The scale and variety of use of the L2 differs enormously - it can encompass part or all of government administration, education, and commerce. The L2 situation will not exist if the local language can be used in almost all activities. This being the case, the L2 will at the very least be taught as a subject in schools. Subsequently, there would then be a steady drop in the standard of L2 proficiency.

### 2.1.3 Research Examples

An evidence indicating the importance of exposure in L2 learning was provided by Upshur (1968) who studied the English learning of foreign students participating in a seven-week language learning experiment conducted within the framework of existing EFL courses. The students received either no instruction in EFL or were given instruction either one hour or two hours daily. Placement in treatment groups (0-Hr, 1-Hr, 2-Hr) was determined by a language proficiency test. In addition to the language classes in which some participants were enrolled, all participants enrolled in seminars in American law and attended a series of lectures. The 0-Hr and 1-Hr groups spent two hours daily in seminars. The

2-Hr group spent 1 hour daily. In the seminars for the 2-Hr group an attempt was made to compensate for the limited language abilities of the participants. Less information was presented in each seminar hour, and the outside reading requirements were reduced. At the end of the experiment, a parallel form of the placement test was administered. Analysis of data failed to produce any evidence that the amount of formal language instruction had any effect on learning. The result was interpreted in support of the view that the most efficient language learning occurs in informal situation outside the classroom when the learner must make communicative use of the language variety to be learned.

An observation by Lambert et al. (cited in Kennedy 1973) indicated that using the TL as a medium of instruction increased proficiency in the language. In a research programme conducted by him and his associates at McGill University in Montreal, children who began elementary school as monolingual speakers of English were being taught at school as if they were monolingual speakers of French, from the time they began kindergarten through the primary classes, in an attempt to achieve bilingualism through 'a home-school language switch'. By exposing them to French through the teaching of several subjects in the language, their control of spoken French developed rapidly. At the fifth year, the children became very fluent, although their production of French was still not equal to that of the native speakers.

Nevertheless, they had learned far more than they would have through typical FL learning classes, and without any adverse effect on their English language abilities, or their academic achievement.

In another study by Briere (1978), it was observed that, among Native Mexican children learning Spanish as L2, environmental variables (such as whether the parents and siblings spoke Spanish, amount of attendance at school, and need for the parents to speak Spanish to travel for work) enhanced proficiency in the TL. Similarly, the children who scored the highest on the test of Spanish were those whose community was the closest to Spanish-speaking community. 'Apparently, the closer to a Spanish speaking community a Native Mexican community is, the greater is the exposure to and the need for Spanish as a second language' (Briere 1978: 171). Likewise, as in the case of boys who normally spent most of the time with their fathers, they tended to be more proficient in Spanish (since, in a community of high unemployment, their fathers must know some Spanish in order to obtain jobs outside the community).

Briere's finding reflects the role of language contact in determining the success of L2 learning. This being the case, L2 learners learning the TL in the TL community (as in the case of ESL learners in the English-speaking countries) are at the advantage of being substantially exposed to the language whereas a great majority of L2 learners throughout the world are not. As

observed by Politzer (1965), all immigrants coming to the United States eventually learn to speak English - no matter what their educational level or language aptitude - so long as they continue to expose themselves to the TL environment.

Exposure to a given language environment provides the learner opportunities to practise the TL. Rajagopal (1976), in a survey among Malay-medium pupils in selected schools in Selangor, observed that pupils who were less competent in English were those handicapped by their environment. They received less opportunity and encouragement to practise speaking English at home. Even their contacts outside the home did not provide them with situations in which they could practise speaking the language.

Rajagopal's finding strengthens the assumption that Malay-medium learners of ESL are insufficiently exposed to English; hence their poor performance in the language (Balaetham 1982; Mohd Hashim 1982). And the reason for this lack of exposure to the TL is due to the fact that English now is not anymore the medium of instruction but merely a subject taught in schools. As stated by Salleh:

'With its status as a second language, being taught as one of the subjects in the school curriculum, English language teaching has been stripped of all the back-up it once had. This means a drastic reduction in contact hours, in exposure to the language, and in actual use of the language' (Salleh 1979: 3).

The assumption that the more the learner practises the more competent he is in the TL was confirmed by

Seliger (1977) who worked among a sample of adult learners of ESL in an intensive programme. Seliger defined practice as:

'...any verbal interaction between the learner and others in his environment. Usually such interaction consists of an output speech act by the learner and an input speech act from some other speaker. In some cases input will precede output and in other cases the reverse may be true....Practice also consists of covert activity such as listening to the radio, watching television and reading' (ibid.: 265).

He observed that, given the time constraint, formal instruction did not permit much practice in the TL. Therefore, additional practice outside class was of vital importance in acquiring L2 competence. This means that, given an optimal teaching system, much of what must be learned must be acquired outside class hours built on what was acquired within a formal instructional framework. Seliger points out:

'...that some learners, because of some cognitive or affective characteristics, are able to exploit formal learning environments for extensive practice while others derive only limited benefit from formal instruction. It also appears...that those who are capable of deriving the most benefit from formal learning environments may be the most likely to use this formally acquired base for further language development in informal or naturalistic learning environments' (ibid.: 264).

Based on the intensity of practice, Seliger classified the subjects into two categories: (1) high input generators, i.e. learners who interacted intensively, who seek out opportunities to use an L2 and who caused others to direct language at them, and (2) low

input generators, i.e. those who either avoided interacting or played relatively passive roles in language interaction situations. Seliger's result showed that the former were more successful in acquiring L2 proficiency than the latter. And he concluded that '...high input generators will benefit from instruction because they are maturationally able to do so. However, they will also exploit other practice opportunities beyond what is presented formally. Low input generators, on the other hand, do not interact intensively in language classes or outside of language classes. While they too are maturationally capable of benefiting from formal instruction, it appears that they are also dependent on it' (ibid.: 276).

Hamayan et al. (1977) examined the constellation of personality and language exposure factors associated with learning French as an L2 among three groups of students: (1) early French immersion group and (2) late French immersion group, both wherein the students received instruction in most subjects in French, and (3) English controlled group wherein the students learnt French only as a subject while instructions in other subjects were in English. They observed that, regardless of the nature of the French programmes, those learners who consistently used English and less French when communicating with acquaintances were less proficient in both oral and written French than learners who reported less consistent use of English. Similarly, students who reported a high degree of shyness performed less well on French reading

comprehension than did students who reported a low degree of shyness. Thus, it is apparent that learning an L2 is more effective when there is sufficient practice and, insofar as shy students may be less likely to practise it, less proficiency will be attained.

But, the sufficiency of practice is dependent upon the availability of opportunity to practise. In the school context, the sources of opportunity to practise speaking in the TL are the teachers and peers. Chesterfield et al. (1983), studying the influence of teachers and peers in L2 acquisition among pre-school learners of English, observed that in classrooms where English-preferring children (i.e. those who speak English most of the time) predominated, those children who used relatively more English with peers and who increased their English usage over time generally showed the greatest increase in English proficiency. In classrooms where the majority of students were Spanish-preferring (i.e. those who speak Spanish most of the time), children who showed the greatest increase in English proficiency were those who used relatively more English over time with the teacher. The finding served to imply that learners who were highly exposed to the TL and who took this opportunity to interact in the language were more successful in attaining proficiency. And the teachers and peers were the sources for exposure to the TL and, in turn, for increasing proficiency.

Chandrasegaran (1979), in a first study of its kind among Malay-medium learners of ESL in Peninsular

Malaysia, noticed a definite link between degree of exposure to English and competence in the language. She also found that urban pupils tended to be better at English than rural pupils. She ruled out the factor of socioeconomic status since 90% of the pupils in her sample, both rural and urban, came from working class families. She also dismissed the factor of quality of instructions in rural schools as being inferior since all government schools followed the same curriculum and were staffed by teachers of similar qualifications. Nor were urban students more strongly motivated or more favourable in attitude towards English than rural pupils. The possibility was that urban pupils, by living in an environment where the opportunity for hearing and reading English was more readily available, experienced wider contact with English and so became more competent in the language. But Chandrasegaran's study was conducted during the time when the English school system was still in existence even though it only remained at the secondary level. This might probably have some bearing on the degree of exposure to English and, consequently, on the standard of competence in the language among pupils of the day. Therefore the relevance of her finding to the present-day context of ESL in Malaysia has yet to be seen.

Lieberson (1972) provided an example of the importance of exposure to the TL in the wider context of society i.e. English in French-speaking Canada, where the language was taught as a subject in French-medium schools



attended by almost all French-speaking children. It was observed that not all L2 learning, however, took place in the classrooms. A lot of competence in English would be gained as young people found it necessary to participate in the wider society, as English was used in the high domain of employment. Thus bilingualism in English increased slightly (due to the increase in exposure) and then levelled off through the middle years. As people grew older and left the work force, English was no longer needed for employment and, as a result, bilingualism decreased (due to the decrease in exposure).

Thus, from the evidence given above, exposure apparently enhances language learning. The more the learner listens to the TL, and the more he reads and speaks in the language - i.e. the higher the degree of contact to the TL he receives - the more competent he is likely to become in the language.

## 2.2 ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION

Attitudes and motivation are closely related to each other; one's attitudes to learn will always affect one's motivation (Wilkins 1972; Gardner & Lambert 1972; Harmer 1983; Steinberg 1982; Taylor 1976). This being the case, a discussion on attitudes will almost always involve motivation. Therefore, here, the two are discussed together under the same heading.

As discussed in Section 2.1, in L2 learning,

practice in the TL is vital in determining success. However, the learner's willingness to practise depends very much on his motivation which itself is governed by such factors as reason and desire to and <sup>perseverance</sup> perseverance in learning the TL. 'The reason a person wants to learn a second language and how much he wants to learn it, how well and in what manner, may determine the amount of effort he is willing to put into it. Psychologists have claimed that practice without willingness gives poor results' (Mackey 1965: 122). In turn, one's motivation in language learning is very much dependent on one's attitudes. It is for this reason that the two variables are assumed to be related since it is believed that positive or negative attitudes towards the learning of a particular L2 is one factor that motivates or demotivates the learner.

Attitude is defined by Gardner as '...an evaluative <sup>conclude</sup> reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent' (Gardner 1985: 9). Allport defines attitude as 'a mental and <sup>relate to a nerve or nervous system</sup> neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related' (Allport 1954: 45). And Oppenheim's definition of the term is:

'...an attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli. Thus the individual's attitudes are present but dormant most of the time; they become expressed in speech or other behaviour only when the object of the attitude is perceived.... Attitudes are

reinforced by beliefs (the cognitive component) and often attract strong feelings (the emotional component) that will lead to particular forms of behaviour (the action tendency component)' (Oppenheim 1966: 105-106).

In L2 learning, two attitude variables which have received considerable attention are attitudes towards the TL and attitudes towards the TL community (Spolsky 1969).

The second term, motivation, is often used as a simple explanation of achievement. 'A working definition of motivation would be that it consists of internal processes which spur us on to satisfy some needs' (Child 1986: 32). Bernard defines it as '...the stimulation of action toward a particular objective where previously there was little or no attraction toward that goal. It is the process of arousing, maintaining, and controlling interest' (Bernard 1965: 239). Harmer says: 'Motivation is some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action' (Harmer 1983: 3).

Gardner's definition of motivation which specifically relates to L2 learning states:

*X*

'Motivation...refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language. That is, motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity' (Gardner 1985: 10).

Nevertheless, it is not clear in what sense one can use the term motivation in L1 acquisition; all that one can say is that it comes 'naturally' (CORDER 1973).

There must be some kind of biological force that 'drives' the infant to acquire language to gratify its needs (O'Brien 1977), made possible by the presence of an innate mechanism known as the 'language acquisition device' or LAD, as proposed by Chomsky (Crystal 1987; Stern 1983).

Harmer (1983) points out that if one perceives a goal (that is something one wishes to achieve) and if that goal is sufficiently attractive, he will be strongly motivated to do whatever is necessary to reach that goal. Similarly, language learners who are motivated to learn the TL perceive various types of goal. Harmer makes a distinction between long-term and short-term goals. The former might have something to do with a student's wish to get a better job or become a member of the TL community. The latter type might include such things as the urge to pass an examination or to complete a course of instruction successfully.

Harmer further identifies two types of motivation:

- ✓ (1) extrinsic motivation (which he subdivides into instrumental motivation and integrative motivation) which is concerned with factors outside the classroom, and (2)
- ✓ intrinsic motivation which is concerned with what takes place in the classroom. The terms instrumental and integrative motivations were first introduced by Gardner and his associates in their pioneering studies on attitudinal-motivational variables in L2 learning (Anisfeld & Lambert 1961; Gardner & Lambert 1959, 1972; Gardner et al. 1979; Lambert et al. 1963). The motivation

is instrumental in orientation '...if the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement, such as getting ahead in one's occupation' (Gardner & Lambert 1972: 3). On the other hand, the motivation is integrative '...if the student wishes to learn more about the other cultural community because he is interested in it in an open-minded way, to the point of eventually being accepted as a member of that other group' (ibid.).

Gardner and Lambert's concept of motivational orientations has lately been refined by Dulay et al. (1982) who add to the two existing types a third type of orientation, i.e. social group identification, which is defined as '...the desire to acquire proficiency in a language or language variety spoken by a social group with which the learner identifies' (ibid.: 50). Simply, for the learner, this means that the language or language variety which he speaks often signals to others that he belongs to a certain social group. To distinguish between integrative motivation and social group identification Dulay et al. say:

'The social group identification motive is similar to the integrative motive, but, in our interpretation, goes beyond it. Learners with an integrative motive for learning a new language would wish to participate in the cultural or social life of the target language speakers while retaining their identification with their own native language group. Learners who have a social group identification motive would want social and cultural participation, but they would also want to become members of the group that speaks the new language or language variety' (ibid.: 50-51).

Extrinsic motivation, according to Harmer (1983), is affected by a number of other factors, most of which have to do with the learner's attitude to the language. His attitude, on the other hand, is influenced by the people around him. This can be his parents, his peers, or any other members of the community in which the learner lives. Thus, if the language occupies a prestigious position in his society, the learner may be favourably disposed towards it. Another major factor that influences the learner's attitude is his previous experiences as a learner, and this is especially so in the case of an adult learner. Previous success or failure, for instance, will result in positive or negative effect.

As for intrinsic motivation Harmer says:

'While it is reasonable to suppose that many adult learners have some degree of extrinsic motivation, and while it is also true that a student's attitude may be affected by members of his speech community, it would seem to be the case that intrinsic motivation plays by far the larger part in most students' success or failure as language learners. Many students bring no extrinsic motivation at all to the classroom...and may well, in the case of school children, have neutral, or even negative feelings about language learning. For them what happens in the classroom will be of vital importance in determining their attitude to the language, and in supplying motivation....' (ibid.: 4-5).

The factors affecting intrinsic motivation considered by Harmer are as follows: (1) physical conditions of classroom, i.e. well lit, not overcrowded, and well equipped; (2) method of teaching, not so much on method of presenting the subject-matter but more on the

method of motivating the learner so as to attract his attention; (3) the teacher, who should possess at least several characteristics such as the ability to make his class interesting, must be fair to and understand his students, must offer a good model as a TL user; and (4) the learner's success, which will affect his attitude (as discussed earlier) and in turn affect his motivation.

### 2.2.1 The Role of Attitudes and Motivation in Language Learning

The primary function of human language in human society is as a means of communication. It is this function that 'drives' or 'motivates' a child learning it. Its acquisition '...enables the child to have questions answered, to make observations and request, to state objections, to gain information, and so on. Perhaps above all, the language he acquires is a sign of his membership and participation in his community' (Kennedy 1973: 70).

It is generally accepted that motivation frequently occurs in L2 rather than L1 learning. However, according to Wilkins (1972), the knowledge of the psychology of L1 acquisition is of significance for the understanding of motivation in L2 learning. For the child, there is urgency to acquire his L1 so as to be able to control his environment. By means of the language he learns to organize his perception and to regulate his behaviour and mental processes. In his early years he merely seeks

outside assistance to solve his problems and needs, and language will have the function for him to obtain such assistance. Then comes a stage during which the child spends most of his time talking to himself or to others who care to listen in his effort to find solutions to his problems and needs himself. Finally he internalizes the external speech so that his behaviour is no longer simply a response to external stimuli but has come under the control of his thought processes.

Wilkins goes on to say that, by means of the L1 that the child has acquired, he is already able to control his environment and he therefore does not need another language for the same purpose. His modes of behaviour are already set in the ways that are appropriate to his L1 culture. When he comes to learn an L2, it is hardly anymore necessary for him to change the manner in which he regulates his own behaviour to suit the ways of the L2 culture (although the desire to do so may affect his motivation to learn). Thus, for the L1, he has the best of all possible motives to acquire the language since it enables him to influence the behaviour of others in ways that suit him.

Kennedy seems to be in agreement with Wilkins in this matter. He points out:

'Because the second language learner already possesses a human language, he may have a less urgent motivation to communicate. That is, while he may need a second language for a particular educational or vocational purpose, he can typically still use his first language to communicate with family and friends if necessary' (Kennedy 1973: 74).



And so is Mackey who says:

'For the first language, the motives are most compelling. The language gives the child control of his surroundings and makes him a member of the community. But once these vital purposes have been achieved, the reasons for learning to communicate in another language are generally less urgent. Whereas the first language is simply an unconscious means to an end, the second may first have to be learned as an end in itself. So that, for the second language, the immediate objectives may be scholastic rather than social' (Mackey 1965: 122).

The same conditions relating to drive or motivation in acquiring the L1 may arise in an L2 learning situation, and if they do, a greater amount of success may be achieved. Again, according to Wilkins (ibid.), such circumstances usually only arise when one is living in a country where the L2 is spoken, as in the case of immigrants. However, the success achieved may vary from one individual to another depending on how urgent it is for him to acquire the language. Naturally, those who need the language most, say, for job purposes, will learn the language better than those who stay at home.

Thus, Wilkins believes that it is in the 'natural' situations that the individual is under pressure to learn the L2. If the L2 is being learned in the learner's mother-tongue country, such pressure may not exist and thus achievement seems correspondingly low. Further, for the L2, people have different motives for learning - one is well motivated because he wants to learn, another because he has to. Motivation has to do with the reasons for learning and with attitudes - attitudes towards the

language, towards the speakers of the language, and towards bilingualism itself. Integrative learners are likely to have very sympathetic attitudes towards the TL culture and its speakers. They may be prepared to take over some of its values and even transfer their allegiance to that group. They will probably see great value in being able to speak foreign languages and have access to different cultures. At the other end of the scale will be learners whose attitudes are highly ethnocentric. They will show hostility towards foreigners and towards their values. They will tend to be authoritarian and intolerant.

Steinberg (1982), in support of Wilkins, is of the opinion that attitudes and motivation operate only in certain types of learning situations. The question of motivation for learning an L2 is not likely to arise in a natural setting wherein the learner is living, since in such a setting the learner is exposed to language in the ordinary course of living. It is in the planned learning situation such as the classroom that motivation comes into play. The element of choice involved in attending class, listening to the teachers, participating in activities, and in doing assignments, the amount of exposure which one receives and the amount of attention and effort which one may devote to learning, may be affected by one's motivation. Dislike of a teacher, a negative attitude towards the TL or its speakers, or the other members of the class would also affect one's

determination and persistence to be involved in the class and its activities. This same negative attitude could <sup>destroy s<sup>t</sup>p</sup> impair memory functions and detract from focussing on the TL. In actual classroom situations, any one of a number of variables could affect motivation.

In the wider context, favourable attitudes may be helpful when people learn an L2 voluntarily, as in the case of some people in the former British colonies learning ESL. Sometimes, the conquered have to learn the language of their masters however negative their attitudes towards the TL and its speakers are. To quote an example, during the Second World War when Malaya (and the rest of Asia) was under Japanese occupation, people (especially those who worked with the Japanese) had to learn Japanese as they were compelled to. Indeed, through fear, the language was mastered (at varying degrees) within a matter of a brief period in spite of their hatred towards the TL speakers! Even today one could find survivors of the war who could still speak Japanese and sing Japanese patriotic songs.

### 2.2.2 Research Examples

Among the frequently quoted studies of attitudes and motivation in L2 learning are those of Gardner and his associates. Their studies were largely a continuation of a long tradition of research relating to the affective factors in language learning begun by Jones (1949). The question that they aimed to answer in their studies was:

How is it that some people can learn the L2 quickly and expertly while others, given the same opportunities to learn, are utter failures? For the purpose of their studies, they constructed a sociopsychological theory of L2 or FL learning which maintained that:

'...the successful learner of a second language must be psychologically prepared to adopt various aspects of behaviour which characterize members of another linguistic-cultural group. The learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitudes toward the members of the other group are believed to determine how successful he will be, relatively, in learning the new language. His motivation to learn is thought to be determined by his attitudes toward the other group in particular and toward foreign people in general and by his orientation toward the learning task itself' (Gardner & Lambert 1972: 3).

Results obtained in a series of studies conducted among English-speaking high school students learning French as an L2 in a Canadian setting in Montreal (Gardner 1960; Gardner & Lambert 1959; Lambert et al. 1963) indicated that achievement in learning French was dependent upon both attitudes and motivation. Students who were integratively oriented were more successful in the language than those who were instrumentally oriented. In another study among the same type of students in an Ontario setting (Feenstra & Gardner cited in Gardner & Lambert 1972), the students' attitudes seemed to be dependent upon parental attitudes - parents whose attitudes were favourable towards the TL community more actively encouraged their children to learn the language

than did parents whose attitudes were less favourable.

The influence of parents and even other people in shaping learner attitudes towards learning the TL has also been observed by others (Jones 1949; Spolsky 1969). 'A most significant point about attitudes is that there is evidence that the attitudes of children are almost always determined by the attitudes of their parents....it should be said that it is the parents who determine how well a child will learn a foreign language' (Wilkins 1972). Apart from parental encouragement, evidence from a recent research by Genesee et al. (1983) indicated that the learners' expectation of motivational support from the TL group also emerged as a significant predictor of L2 performance (it correlated positively with the learners' self-rated proficiency in the TL) and, in line with Gardner and Lambert's finding, so did the learners' willingness to integrate themselves to the TL group.

The applicability of Gardner and Lambert's findings in cultural settings other than the Canadian ones was provided in another series of studies (Gardner & Lambert 1972) conducted in various regional settings in the United States - two of them bicultural (i.e. in Louisiana and Maine where, as in Canada, there was exclusive contact with French language, people and culture) and the third more representative of 'typical' urban American cities (i.e. in Connecticut where the people had not had concentrated experience with French-Americans

exclusively). The final study was conducted in the Philippines, where learning an FL played a vital role in most students' lives.

In the American studies conducted among English-speaking high school students, there was sufficient evidence to support the importance of attitudes and motivation in the achievement of French as an L2. Those who were highly motivated and desirous to learn French performed better in the language and vice versa. But in each setting there appeared to be a different basis for this motivation. In Louisiana, for example, the motivation seemed to derive from strong parental encouragement. In Maine, the motivation apparently was fostered by the students' identification with their French teachers and their sensitivity towards the feelings of other people. In Connecticut, the strong motivation seemed to come from the students' own integrative orientation towards the learning of French and their realization of its potential usefulness. Similarly, in all the three settings, ethnocentric attitudes affected students' progress, i.e. those with ethnocentric attitudes performed badly in French.

Finally, in the Philippines study conducted among Tagalog-speaking high school students, the same result was observed. Students with strong motivational intensity and who received parental encouragement to learn English were also successful in developing

proficiency.

In terms of motivational orientation, Gardner and Lambert's findings indicated that the most successful learners were not necessarily the integratively motivated ones, but the instrumentally motivated ones as well. The Montreal studies reflected the superiority of integrative over instrumental motivation. However, the Maine, Louisiana and Connecticut studies showed the lack of relationship between motivational orientations and proficiency. In the Philippines study, the result of factor analysis showed that instrumental motivation appeared to be a better predictor of overall English proficiency and at the same time showed a clear association between integrative motivation and 'aural-oral' skills, although the correlation analysis showed the lack of relationship between the variables. Gardner and Lambert therefore concluded that '...in settings where there is an urgency about mastering a second language, - as it is in the Philippines and in North America for members of linguistic minority groups - the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective' (ibid.: 141).

Lukmani (1972), studying the motivation of Marathi-speaking learners of ESL in a non-westernized Indian setting, observed that the learners were more instrumentally than integratively motivated to learn English and that instrumental motivation correlated significantly with English proficiency scores. The

result therefore ran counter to those of the Canadian studies. The author attributed the marked difference to the widely different social condition (compared to those prevalent in Canada or the United States among learners of French or Hebrew or English) wherein the post-colonial Indian society while torn by a struggle between tradition and modernity (in this case being represented by English) was determined to establish its own identity. Hence, the orientation towards English could only be instrumental.

Irrespective of the contradictory results of previous research, there is still a consensus of opinion that motivational orientations are related in some way to competence. Both integrative and instrumental motivations work equally well in fostering learning (Brown cited in Steinberg 1982; Alptekin 1981; Genesee et al. 1983). Both types of motivation can positively influence the rate and quality of L2 acquisition; each is more effective under certain conditions (Dulay et al. 1982). And Harmer points out: '...it is not so much the type of motivation that counts as its strength. Certainly a student who has strong integrative motivation will be likely to succeed, but the same is also true of the student who has strong instrumental motivation!' (Harmer 1983: 4).

But lately, Hansen (1981), in a study among multiethnic international tertiary students of ESL in the United States, observed that neither instrumental nor integrative motivation was important in predicting



competence. The reason that was thought to be accountable for this was the multiethnic background of the country itself where there were so many ethnic enclaves, when students first arrived, that they might not see language achievement as a vehicle for obtaining a job or becoming truly integrated into American culture.

And very lately, Strong (1984), who worked among Spanish-speaking children learning English in an American kindergarten, came up with a similar finding. His study was, however, confined only to integrative motivation and therefore provided no comparison between it and instrumental motivation. The finding not only showed the lack of positive association between integrative motivation and proficiency but also that integrative orientation towards members of the TL group did not enhance acquisition of English. Comparison between beginners and advanced level English speakers found that the advanced children showed significantly more integrative orientation to the TL group than the beginners, supporting his notion that integrative motivation was the result of having acquired the L2 skills rather than promoting them.

Thus, from research evidence outlined above, it is apparent that the degree of relationships between motivational orientations and competence varies from setting to setting. In some settings, instrumental motivation is more effective than integrative motivation;

in some other settings it is the contrary. They may correlate significantly or fail to correlate at all and, worse still, they may correlate negatively (Oller 1977).

Gardner and Lambert's finding in the American studies that attitudes were related to competence was supported by that of Oller et al. (1977a). Their subjects were Chinese-speaking foreign students primarily studying at the graduate level in the United States. Regression analysis results revealed meaningful clusters of attitudinal variables related to scores on an English proficiency test. Generally, attitudes towards the TL group correlated positively with attained proficiency in English. However, the finding of Oller et al. (1977b) among Mexican learners of ESL showed a similarly strong but contrasting relationship between the two variables. Instead, it was the learners with negative attitudes towards the TL group who performed significantly better on the ESL proficiency test while those with positive attitudes performed poorly. They seemed to be anti-integratively motivated towards the Anglo-American majority and the more competent they were in English the more negative they tended to be towards Americans. The researchers' explanation for this contrast was:

'....The Chinese graduate students were all members of a population present in the United States by choice, and all of them were from a relatively high socio-economic stratum in their home country. The Mexican Americans on the other hand, ...would easily identify themselves with the colonized minority of Mexican Americans or Chicanos of the Southwest who still feel the oppressive weight of having

been absorbed into a powerful political system in which they have traditionally had little power of choice. Moreover, they were members of a lower socio-economic stratum in Mexico or the border towns which they consider home. It would appear that as the subjects in this study progress in ESL their resentment towards the Anglo majority becomes stronger' (Oller et al. 1977b: 182).

In another study by Chihara and Oller (1978) among adult Japanese speakers of EFL in Japan there seemed to be a weak correlation between attitudes and English proficiency. The result was not closely parallel to those obtained by Oller et al. (1977a). Both authors therefore were of the opinion that the difference in relationship for the Japanese subjects in this study and the Chinese subjects in the earlier study could be explained by the difference between the two contexts of learning. The first study dealt with a population of foreign students in the United States who were actually learning English in the TL context. To Chihara and Oller, there were good reasons to suppose that the relationship between attitudes and competence might be different for the Japanese learners in the second study whose only exposure to the TL was in the classroom context. The Chinese subjects were in a second language context where the TL was spoken in the surrounding social milieu whereas the Japanese subjects were in a foreign language context where the TL was not spoken by the people in the surrounding community (Oller et al. 1977b). The finding sustains the hypothesis that the relationship between the two variables is stronger for learners in the

L2 context than it is for those in the FL context.

In a replication of the study by Oller and his associates, Pierson et al. (1980) observed that, among secondary school students in Hong Kong, there was a strong but reversed relationship between the two variables in question. The more favourable their attitudes towards the English language and its speakers, the lower their proficiency in the language. This was due to the uncertainty of attitudes among the students - while they seemed to want to speak better English, they were also ambivalent about using it. There appeared to be a certain degree of tension within the students between needing and wanting to use English, while at the same time maintaining their identity as Chinese, in a Chinese society. This reflected a very basic confusion in Hong Kong students themselves. Lord (cited in Pearson et al. 1980) saw the majority of Hong Kong children as 'bilinguals under pressure', confused by the probable impact of English on Chinese language in general at the cultural and semantic levels, and the weight of Chinese tradition which in Hong Kong is a mixed and ambiguous one.

One of the early attempts to study attitudes and motivation in learning ESL among Malay-medium pupils is that of Rajagopal (1976) conducted in selected upper secondary schools in Selangor, Peninsular Malaysia. Generally, the pupils possessed strong motivational intensity to learn English and those with high

motivational intensity performed significantly better in English than those with low motivational intensity. Their orientation towards the learning of English appeared to be instrumental and the reason behind this was the utility of the language as perceived by them. Regardless of their attitudes, the pupils were of the opinion that knowledge of the language was essential in securing a good job. They realised that knowledge of English was also important for further studies in local (to my own knowledge as they still were at the time) or foreign universities. The same applies to attitudes - the pupils' attitudes in learning English were generally favourable and those with positive attitudes performed significantly better than those with negative attitudes. Pupils with positive attitudes tended to be those who did well in the language; those with negative attitudes tended to be those who experienced difficulties in the language which in turn seemed to have affected their attitudes towards English. Unfortunately the scope of Rajagopal's study was confined only to attitudes and motivational intensity and discussion on instrumental motivation was provided only briefly in passing.

Chandrasegaran's study of attitudes and motivation (Chandrasegaran 1979) among Malay-medium pupils showed that the pupils' attitudes towards English were generally highly favourable (a hardly disputable fact since, in spite of the education policy, the prestige of English among Malaysian masses was and is still high). The

correlation between attitudes and competence was found to be significant but insufficiently high to be accepted as evidence of substantive relationship. A possible explanation given for this was the homogeneity of the sample with regard to attitudes - highly favourable. Thus, Chandrasegaran concluded that favourable attitudes were not a sufficient condition for success in second language learning.

The finding also indicated that motivational intensity among Malay-medium pupils was indeed strong and that this variable was related to competence. Of the attitudinal-motivational variables it was the best predictor of competence in English. The result obtained was therefore compatible with those of similar studies by Gardner and Lambert in North America, further supporting the hypothesis that motivation plays an important role in the development of L2 competence.

As for instrumental and integrative motivations, according to the study by Chandrasegaran, both were equally important among Malay-medium pupils; both had no differential effect on competence. Whatever difference existed between the two motivational orientations, it was too slight to be of consequence. Pupils who were competent in English might have either instrumental or integrative motivation or both. This accords with Gardner and Lambert's conclusion in the Philippines study that both instrumental and integrative motivations were

important for success in L2 learning.

But, in a survey of motivation in learning ESL among undergraduate students in Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, Vijchulata and Lee (1984) provided a slightly different picture. The students, who came from all faculties of the university, were taking one of the five English courses, ranging from the basic to the advanced, as part of their diploma/degree requirements. Regardless of the students' field of study or vocational/academic interests, overall they appeared to be integratively oriented in learning English. Generally, the students also appeared to be instrumentally oriented although such orientation was not as important as the integrative one.

Did the more motivated students perform better than the less motivated ones? For this, Vijchulata and Lee observed that although motivational intensity and desire to learn English among the sample were strong, there were actually no significant relationships between these motivational variables and the English grades. Again, the finding ran counter to those of Chandrasegaran's Johor study and Gardner and Lambert's Canadian and American studies.

Up to this juncture, it can therefore be concluded that achievement in L2 learning is affected by such variables as attitudes and motivation (apart from exposure and, of course, a host of other variables). Nonetheless, the degree of relationships between achievement and these attitudinal-motivational variables

varies from one setting to another (Oller 1977). Some people have positive attitudes towards a particular L2, its people and its culture while some others have negative attitudes. This in a way may influence achievement in L2 learning although the pattern of influence is not clear. 'Sometimes favourable attitudes <sup>persuade</sup> may induce people to learn a language, and other times people may develop favourable attitudes to a language because of having learned it' (Taylor 1976: 256). The reverse is also true - doing poorly in an L2 first elicits an aversion to the language which is then gradually transferred to its speakers (Hermann 1980).



## CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING

Two sampling techniques were adopted for this research, i.e. cluster and stratified sampling (Cohen & Manion 1980; Mouly 1978). By clustering, a specific number of schools were selected and all pupils from the required ethnic group and from the required school level were tested (see Sections 3.1.1, 3.1.2 and 3.1.3). By stratification, the sample was divided into homogeneous groups, each group consisting of subjects with similar characteristics. In this case, the division was based on geographical location of schools, i.e. rural and urban. Since everyone from the required school level was sampled without regard to sex, educational stream, academic ability and socioeconomic background, the sample could be considered as representative of the total population under study.

The sample of this study, i.e. Malay pupils, refers to children of the Malay race or those similarly descended, (constitutionally) classified as the indigenous people of the country, who use Malay (or any one of the closely related languages of the Malay Archipelago) as their L1 (Amin 1982). Rural schools refer to schools classified by the Ministry of Education

as those situated in towns or areas with a population of less than 10,000 persons; urban schools refer to those situated in towns of 10,000 persons or more.

Before it was possible to conduct the survey, approval (as required) from the Ministry of Education and the Education Office of the state involved (in this case Selangor) was sought. After satisfying all the necessary procedures, arrangements with the schools to be involved were made.

### 3.1.1 Sampling of the Schools

The schools selected were original Malay-medium, non-residential, coeducational secondary schools in the Kelang and Kuala Langat-Sepang districts of Selangor, Peninsular Malaysia. Original in this sense means the schools were originally established as Malay-medium schools as opposed to those originally established as English-medium schools. English in these selected schools was almost an FL (although an L2 statuswise), a great majority of the teachers were Malays and, especially in the rural schools, the pupils were also in the majority Malays. All these characteristics differed from those of the former English-medium schools.

Selecting schools from among those which were non-residential was of necessity simply because such schools were found both in the rural and urban areas. Pupils in these schools maintained their day-to-day contact with

the home and community. They possessed differing intellectual ability; they came from families with differing socioeconomic backgrounds - from the humble rural surrounding to the rather complex urban environment.

In contrast, the residential schools were few in numbers, located in the bigger towns or cities. Pupils in such schools were detached from the home and community especially during the terms, confined solely to hostel life. They were actually a bunch of high-flyers selected from the non-residential schools throughout the country. Their characteristics being such, they were not representative of the total population under study and, therefore, had to be excluded.

For convenience in obtaining subjects from both sexes, selection was confined to coeducational schools which could be found both in the rural and urban areas. This was another characteristic of the original Malay-medium schools. On the other hand, the former English-medium schools were located mostly in the urban areas of which many were non-coeducational.

Out of the nine districts in Selangor (see Map 3), three were chosen for the purpose of sampling, i.e. Kelang, Kuala Langat and Sepang. The reason for selecting the Kelang district was that the district capital, i.e. Kelang town, is representative of the urban category. The town, with a population of over 200,000 people (Mohd Noor & Siew 1984), is a metropolitan centre

MAP 3: SELANGOR



Key:

State boundary      - . - . - . - . - . - . - . - . - .

District boundary    - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

based on the definition of the term metropolitan by the Department of Statistics as being 'all gazetted areas with a population of 75,000 persons or over' (*State Population Report Selangor 1983*). It is the fourth largest town in Malaysia and the biggest in Selangor. It is the royal capital of Selangor where the Sultan has his residence and was formerly for decades the state capital. This is also the congregation centre for the elite community where, of the prestigious schools first established in the early colonial days, some are to be found.

On the contrary, Kuala Langat and Sepang districts (administratively two districts but under the control of one and the same education authority, i.e. the Kuala Langat-Sepang Education Office and, therefore, regarded as one district for the purpose of this research) are representative of the rural category. These are amongst the least developed districts in Selangor, dotted by a number of small towns little touched by modernization. Socioculturally and socioeconomically, the population is largely *kampong* (small village) dwellers, the majority of whom earn their livelihood as farmers and fishermen - a community similar to that described by Tumin as a 'gemeinschaft, which conveys the personal intimate face-to-face, folklore, solidarity aggregations of human beings that are usually thought to be characteristic of small, isolated, rural or peasant communities in which

everyone is a member of one or two or three families, who together form the population of the community' (Tumin cited in Hashim 1982: 13).

### 3.1.2 Sampling of the Subjects

The subjects comprised all Form Four Malay learners of ESL both from the Arts and Science streams of the randomly selected schools. They possessed several characteristics in common in that they shared the same mother tongue (Malay), in their fourth year of secondary schooling, in the same age group (between 15+ and 16 at the time of the survey), studying throughout in the Malay medium, and had been studying English for the past nine years.

The fourth year pupils were sampled to represent pupils at the upper secondary school level. It was not possible to sample from among the fifth year (Form Five) pupils as it was the policy of the Ministry of Education to prohibit pupils at such school level from being involved as subjects in any research projects (unless it was absolutely necessary). Being in their final year of schooling, to involve them might interrupt preparation for the SPM examination.

### 3.1.3 Sample Size

The sampling frame is as indicated in Table 4.

TABLE 4: BREAKDOWN OF SAMPLE BY DISTRICT, SCHOOL & SEX

DISTRICT: Kuala Langat-Sepang (rural)				
SCHOOLS:	NUMBER OF CLASSES:	MALAY BOYS:	MALAY GIRLS:	TOTAL:
Dengkel	2	26	15	41
Sungai Rawang	1	18	21	39
Bukit Changgang	2	29	35	64
Batu Laut	3	49	66	115
Total:	8	122	137	259
DISTRICT: Kelang (urban)				
SCHOOLS:	NUMBER OF CLASSES:	MALAY BOYS:	MALAY GIRLS:	TOTAL:
Abdul Samad	3	23	10	33
Raja Mahadi	1	9	6	15
Rantau Panjang	3	51	45	96
*Tengku Ampuan Rahimah	6	62	65	127
Seri Istana	3	20	13	33
Total:	16	165	139	304
TOTAL SAMPLE:		287	276	563

\* Some pupils in this school who stayed in hostels were excluded.

As it was in 1986, there were about 24 secondary schools (22 full secondary and two lower secondary) in Kelang district, 12 of which were original Malay-medium, non-residential, coeducational schools. Full secondary applies to schools with Form One to Form Five or, for the bigger ones, Form Six classes; lower secondary refers to schools with Form One to Form Three classes only. Of

these, five (with 16 Form Four classes and a total of 304 Malay pupils) were selected to represent the urban sample as these schools were situated in Kelang town. (In the context of definition by the Ministry, a school situated outside the urban centre, even within the same municipality, is not regarded as an urban school but a rural school since such a school is in the main dominated by working class - i.e. labourers, farmers and fishermen - children). In Kuala Langat-Sepang districts, there were 14 secondary schools (12 full secondary and two lower secondary) at the time, 10 of which were original Malay-medium, non-residential, coeducational schools. Of the 10, four (with eight Form Four classes and a total of 259 Malay pupils) were selected to represent the rural sample. The total number of schools and subjects selected were therefore considered sufficient to represent Kelang and Kuala Langat-Sepang districts.

The difference in the number of schools selected and classes involved in the survey for the rural and urban sample was due to several reasons. The most important reason was the difference in racial composition of enrolment between the two types of school. There were four rural schools with eight classes involved as against five urban schools and sixteen classes involved. In the selected rural schools a very high proportion of the student population were Malays. On the contrary, in the selected urban schools, the proportion of Malays was not as high because there were also many non-Malays in



enrolment and, in some schools, they constituted more than 50%. The high proportion of non-Malays was due to the latest trend among parents to send their children to schools nearest home although some still preferred the established former English-medium schools which might be further away from home but which they believed could guarantee better academic achievement.

Secondly, the rural schools selected happened to be existing full secondary schools, whereas two of the urban schools selected, i.e. Raja Mahadi and Seri Istana, were new schools (with the former still having a very small enrolment and the latter with a low proportion of Malays) and at the time of the survey were just being upgraded to full secondary status with their first batch of Form Four pupils. Tengku Ampuan Rahimah, though a big school with six Form Four classes, had only 127 pupils suitable for sampling. The rest were excluded either because they were non-Malays or they stayed in a hostel throughout the term and therefore did not satisfy the sampling requirement. Actually, the school was not a residential school but there were some non-local children who came from distant kampongs and therefore were provided with hostel facilities.

Finally, the all important factor, was that cooperation from the school authorities concerned was readily available. Thus these schools, as against those not selected, were preferred.

### 3.1.4 Additional Sample

Apart from the pupils, all teachers involved in the teaching of English were also selected. Of these, 49 were from the same urban schools and 21 from the same rural schools. Since the number of those from the rural schools was small, an additional 16 teachers from two other rural schools (i.e. Jenjarum and Teluk Panglima Garang) were added to the list.

## 3.2 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The following instruments were used for the collection of data:

- (1) English language achievement test
- (2) Questionnaire

### 3.2.1 English Language Achievement Test

An English language achievement test was used to assess the level of competence among the subjects. An achievement (or attainment) test is a type of test designed to show mastery of a particular syllabus, or what has been learned of a known syllabus (Davies 1977; Heaton 1975; Lado 1961; Schofield 1972; Valette 1977). For the subjects, this refers to what they had learned for the past nine years of schooling.

The test was structured as follows:

(1) Section A: Question I - Free composition

(2) Section B: Question II - Comprehension

Question III - Grammar/structure

All instructions in the test were provided with translations in Malay to ensure that no subjects might be handicapped by their possible lack of knowledge in English.

### Section A

#### Question I: Free Composition:

Five composition topics were provided and subjects were required to choose any one they preferred. From their chosen topic they were expected to write a composition of about 350 words long. The topics were all general since the idea was to enable the subjects to concentrate on language rather than on content. The composition topics were as follows:

(1) My ambition

(4) My family

(2) A rainy day

(5) A picnic

(3) Malaysian fruits

### Section B

#### Question II: Comprehension:

This was based on a narrative passage taken from the 1977 SPM English Language Paper and therefore it was assumed to be rather suitable for the subjects. The passage was followed by six multiple choice or objective

items (i.e. the questions as they are known in objective tests [Pilliner 1970]).

### Question III: Grammar/Structure:

There were 58 multiple choice items covering the following grammatical/structural categories:

- (1) Tenses
- (2) Concord
- (3) Prepositions
- (4) Articles
- (5) Adjectives
- (6) Adverbs
- (7) Conjunctions
- (8) Auxiliaries
- (9) Phrases
- (10) Clauses
- (11) Active/passive voice
- (12) Direct/indirect speech

All stems for the objective items were based on sample sentences adapted from those of Wren and Martin (1975), some from those of Archer and Nolan-Woods (1981), and a few written by the researcher himself. A stem refers to the initial part of each objective item different from the options which refer to the choices from which the testee selects his answers (Heaton 1975). The entire 58 items encompassed most of the categories outlined in the Malaysian primary English syllabus (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 1980a) and the lower secondary English syllabus (Kementerian Pelajaran

Malaysia 1979) the mastery of which would enable learners to cope with the upper secondary communicational syllabus (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 1980b) fairly easily.

Categorizing each item within a particular grammatical category was just a matter of convenience; categorization was not used in its strictest sense. That the correct response belonged to a particular category in no way indicated that was the only category to be tested. Scrutinizing most of the items showed that they tested a combination of several grammatical categories. For example, items testing present continuous tense also tested other tenses such as simple past, simple present, and future continuous. Items testing interrogative adjectives also tested interrogative pronouns, etc. To be able to select the correct option in each item, the subjects must know that the other options were incorrect. It could therefore be concluded that the test was a global language achievement test, covering most surface areas of English grammar, all of which should have been studied by the subjects for the last nine years of schooling, assuming that the specified syllabuses were strictly followed.

### 3.2.2 Questionnaire

#### 3.2.2.1 Learner Questionnaire

The questionnaire was precoded and self-administered.

Limitation of time and manpower ruled out the conduct of interviews. The questionnaire was divided into sections as follows (see Appendix A):

- (1) Section I: Background information
- (2) Section II: Exposure to English
- (3) Section III: Attitudes
- (4) Section IV: Motivation

**Section I: Background Information:**

This section requested the subjects to provide their background information as follows:

- (1) Date of birth
- (2) School
- (3) Sex
- (4) Stream
- (5) Number of children in the family
- (6) Family income
- (7) Parent or guardian level of education

**Section II: Exposure to English:**

This section measured the pupils' amount of exposure to English based on how often, if ever, they:

- (1) had contact with reading material in English (items 7-14);
- (2) listened to English as spoken through radio and television (items 15-19);
- (3) exposure to unscripted spoken English (items 20-

22).

All items in this section were adapted from those developed by Chandrasegaran (1979).

### Section III: Attitudes:

This section consisted of Likert-type items (Isaac & Michael 1981; Likert 1967, 1971; Oppenheim 1966) meant to measure the pupils' attitudes towards:

- (1) the English language (items 23-27)
- (2) the speakers of English (items 28-32)

Most of the items were adapted from those originally developed by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and which, before this, were adapted and used in various foreign and local settings by researchers, among them Chandrasegaran (1979), Gardner et al. (1985), Jakobovits (1971), Oller et al. (1977a) and Rajagopal (1976). The reason for adapting and using the same items of the so-called direct measure was that such a measure was proved by Pierson et al. (1980) to be a better predictor of English attainment (since the measure produced higher regression value, i.e.  $R=0.44$ ) than the so-called indirect measure originally developed by Spolsky (1969). It should be noted that the subjects used by Pierson et al. (i.e. 466 culturally homogeneous Form Four Chinese learners of ESL from selected schools in Hong Kong who had little or no personal contact with Westerners) happened to be characteristically similar to those of the present study

(i.e. 441 culturally homogeneous Form Four Malay learners of ESL from selected schools in Selangor who had little or no personal contact with Westerners).

#### Section IV: Motivation:

The items in this section were meant to measure the following:

- (1) Orientation of motivation:
  - (a) Instrumental orientation
  - (b) Integrative orientation
- (2) Desire to learn English
- (3) Motivational intensity
- (4) Encouragement from parents and teachers

The orientation index measured the instrumental reasons (items 33-36) and integrative reasons (items 37-39) for studying English. The desire to learn scale consisted of items meant to measure the relative strength of pupil desire to learn English (items 40-45). Finally, the motivational intensity scale (items 46-51) measured the amount of effort (perseverance) the pupils were willing to spend on learning English. Most of the items were similarly adapted from those of the direct measure developed by Gardner and Lambert (*ibid.*) and which, before this, were also adapted and used in several foreign and local settings by researchers, among them Chandrasegaran (*ibid.*), Gardner et al. (*ibid.*), Jakobovits (*ibid.*), Oller et al. (*ibid.*), Rajagopal (*ibid.*) and Vijchulata and Lee (1984). The last two



items (52 and 53) measured the relative strength of encouragement from parents and teachers as perceived by the pupils, adapted from Vijchulata and Lee (ibid.).

#### 3.2.2.2 Teacher Questionnaire

The purpose of the teacher questionnaire was to gather information on teachers' qualifications - both academic and professional - and teaching experience as well as their views, if any, on the problems of teaching and learning English (see Appendix B).

#### 3.2.3 Pretest

All instruments were pretested on a sample of 35 Form Four pupils of Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Gombak Setia, a semi-urban school in a municipality close to the Selangor-Kuala Lumpur (Federal Territory) boundary, in the morning of 3.10.1985. The school was chosen for the pretest following the suggestion of the Selangor Education Office. As a semi-urban school, all pupils came from families of varying socioeconomic backgrounds and, therefore, would represent the sample under study. Most of them lived in the nearby areas except for a few who lived as far as six miles away from school. The subjects for the pretest were selected at random from all the seven Form Four classes available, based on the class

attendance register, five from each class. They comprised 18 boys and 17 girls from both the Arts and Science streams.

The purpose of the pretest was to find out if the questions and instructions in both the test and questionnaire were comprehensible, how easy or difficult the instruments were, and (in the case of the English test) how long it would take to attempt all items. First, the questionnaires were distributed; all instructions were read and explained clearly to the subjects to avoid any possible ambiguities. They were then told to take the questionnaires home for completion and to bring them back to school the next day for collection by their class teachers (whose assistance was sought beforehand). It was agreed earlier with the school that the questionnaires should be taken home by the subjects to avoid taking too much of their class time as this would interrupt lessons. The English test papers were later distributed and the test self-administered in a classroom specially vacated for this purpose. Similarly, all instructions were read and explained clearly to the subjects. On average, it took them between two and two-and-a-half hours to complete the test. It was also agreed earlier that the subjects should not be informed of the test beforehand to avoid some of them coming to school fully prepared, or being subjected to tension, or most importantly, being absent from school on that particular day in order to escape the test.

### 3.2.4 Analysis of Pretest

#### 3.2.4.1 English Language Achievement Test

All the five composition topics in Section A were attempted by the testees with the frequency as follows:

TOPIC:	FREQUENCY:
(a) My ambition	3
(b) A rainy day	3
(c) Malaysian fruits	5
(d) My family	10
(e) A picnic	14
TOTAL:	35

Therefore it was decided that all the topics would be used in the final survey.

For Section B of the test, since it was self-made and had never been tried before, it was considered necessary to take into account its degree of difficulty, its reliability and its validity. Only those scripts from testees who attempted all items were considered. There were 30 scripts in this group. Responses for all the 64 items were scored (1 mark for each correct response) and the total score obtained for each script. The scripts were then ranked according to the total scores before computing the mean score and standard deviation of the test. The mean score was 25, the standard deviation 6.50, the minimum score 11 and the maximum score 40. The result indicated that the test was not within the pupils' ability to attempt as it seemed

quite difficult.

#### Test Reliability:

The reliability of the test was investigated to ensure that it yielded dependable scores (Lado 1961; Valette 1977) since reliability was necessary for the test to be valid (Heaton 1975). The reliability index was computed based on the split-half procedure with the odd items against the even items using the formula:

$$\text{reliability of full test} = \frac{2 (\text{reliability of half test})}{1 + \text{reliability of half test}}$$

along the lines suggested by Burroughs (1975). Thus with a half test reliability of 0.72 (based on Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient) the full test reliability was:

$$\text{reliability} = \frac{2 \times 0.72}{1 + 0.72} = \frac{1.44}{1.72} = 0.84$$

The index of 0.84 indicated that the test reliability was high.

#### Test Validity:

The validity of the test was also investigated to ensure that it measured what it was supposed to measure (Davies 1983; Harrison 1983; Heaton 1975; Lado 1961; Palmer & Bachman 1981; Rafael 1981). Before the pretest, the test was shown to a few colleagues in the English Unit of the Language Department, Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, so that the individual items could be looked at

objectively for any absurdities and ambiguities. As it was, the test looked right to others and therefore it was considered to have face validity. As mentioned in Section 3.2.1, the test items encompassed most of the areas outlined in the Malaysian ESL syllabus and therefore it was considered to have content validity. The concurrent validity of the test was also determined. The criterion used was the third term English test (i.e. teacher-made test) conducted by the school two days before. The concurrent validity index (based on the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient) was high, i.e. 0.79.

#### Item Analysis:

Item analysis was necessary since it would increase the reliability and validity of the test (Lado 1961). The analysis of the scripts (which had already been ranked according to total scores) was carried out by dividing the scripts into two halves - upper half and lower half - with each half consisting of 15 scripts. The facility value (i.e. item difficulty) was computed using the formula:

$$\text{facility value} = \frac{\text{number of correct answers}}{\text{number of testees}}$$

and the discrimination index (i.e. the extent to which the item discriminates between the good and the poor pupils) using the formula:

$$\text{discrimination index} = \frac{\text{correct upper} - \text{correct lower}}{\text{number of candidates in one group}}$$

both along the lines suggested by Heaton (1975).

The analysis showed that only 49 out of 64 items with their facility values ranging from 0.10 to 0.96 and their discrimination indices positive, could be reused, 21 of which had to be improved. However, these 49 items still encompassed all the areas to be tested. The other 15 items were discarded either because their facility values were less than 0.10 or because their discrimination indices were negative (and therefore unsuitable for use since they discriminated the wrong way) (ibid.). For this study, the researcher was prepared to accept a few items with facility values lower than 0.30 (too difficult) and higher than 0.70 (too easy) because the inclusion of difficult items would motivate the good pupils and the inclusion of very easy items would encourage and motivate the poor pupils (ibid.). Since these items were few in numbers they would not really affect the test result in general. It was hoped that, with improvement, the difficult items might become slightly less difficult for the testees as a whole. Taking heed of Heaton's advice, the researcher was prepared to sacrifice both reliability and discrimination to a limited extent in order to include certain items which tested how much the pupils knew of what they had (supposedly) been taught.

### 3.2.4.2 Questionnaire

The pretest indicated that a few of the items needed improvement especially with regard to wordings. There were 34 scripts returned by the school two days later, 33 of which all items were fully attempted and therefore considered for item analysis (but see below).

#### Scoring:

Responses for all items in all measures relating to family socioeconomic background, exposure (but see 2 below) attitudes, motivation and encouragement from parents and teachers were scored and the total score obtained for each measure. Scoring was done as follows:

- (1) Family socioeconomic background - 1 (option A) to 5 (option E) for item 3; 5 (option A) to 1 (option E) for items 4 and 5.
- (2) Exposure - no score for items 7, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15 and 18; 4 (option A) to 0 (option E) for items 8, 10, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20 and 21; 1 (option A) to 0 (option B) for item 22.
- (3) Attitudes - 0 (option A) to 4 (option E) for items 23-25; 4 (option A) to 0 (option E) for items 26 and 27; 0 (option A) to 4 (option E) for items 28-32.
- (4) Motivation - 0 (option A) to 4 (option E) for items 33-39; 3 (option A) to 0 (option D) for items 40-45; 2 (option A) to 0 (option C) for items 46 to 51.

- (5) Encouragement from parents and teachers - 2  
(option A) to 0 (option C) for items 52 and 53.

**Item Analysis:**

The scripts were ranked according to total scores and then were divided into two halves - upper half and lower half - each consisting of 16 scripts. The middle script, i.e. number 17 according to rank, were excluded so as to obtain an equal number of scripts in each half. The discrimination index was computed along the line suggested by Burroughs (1975) as follows:

- (1) For each half, the score for each option (S) in each item was multiplied by the number of respondents choosing the option (N1), i.e.  $S \times N1$ ;
- (2) The total weighted score (sum of  $S \times N1$ ) was obtained for each half by adding all the figures for  $S \times N1$  in (1) above;
- (3) The mean weighted score (M) for each half was obtained using the formula:

$$M = \frac{(\text{sum of } S \times N1)}{N2}$$

(N2 is the number of respondents in each half)

- (4) The discrimination index was then obtained by subtracting the mean weighted score of the upper half (MU) from that of the lower half (ML), i.e.:

$$\text{Discrimination Index} = MU - ML$$



The computation above is different from that of the achievement test described in the previous section due to the fact that here we are scoring on a multi-point scale whereas for the achievement test we were using a two-point scale. The result indicated that the discrimination indices for all items were positive and therefore the items were accepted as suitable for use. The facility value was not accounted for as it was considered irrelevant for the questionnaire.

#### Validity:

Before the pretest, the Malay translation of the questionnaire was checked and improved by a colleague in the Malay Unit of the Language Department, Universiti Pertanian Malaysia. All instructions and items were understood by the subjects without much difficulty. Therefore the questionnaire was considered to have face validity. Other types of validity relating to the questionnaire were unaccounted for as the items had already been tested and used by others in previous studies.

#### 3.2.5 Second Pretest of the English Language Achievement Test

The improved test comprised 49 multiple-choice items still covering all the grammatical/structural areas listed in Section 3.2.1, in spite of the reduced number

of items (see Appendix C).

The second pretest was administered in the same school on 17.2.1986 to a new batch of Form Four pupils following the same procedure as that of the first pretest. The number of testees involved was 35 (21 boys and 14 girls) selected in a similar manner as the first pretest. Only 31 scripts were considered for statistical analysis while the other four, being incomplete, were excluded.

All responses were scored and the total score obtained for each. The scripts were then ranked according to scores. With scores ranging from 11 to 39 (out of the total possible score of 49) the test was within the ability of the pupils to attempt. The analysis showed that the mean was 22 and the standard deviation 7.40. The result confirmed that the revised test was fairly easy as was hoped.

### 3.3 COLLECTION OF DATA

The data were collected between 12.3.1986 and 27.3.1986 after consultation early in the month with all the nine schools involved. The manner in which the data were collected was similar to the pretest as described in Section 3.2.3.

The English achievement test was administered in the morning in the subjects' own respective classrooms to be completed within the time limit of two-and-a-half hours.

Assistance for supervision from class teachers was made available by the school whenever necessary, especially when involving many classes. In all, 518 test papers were distributed and the same number of answer scripts collected with the breakdown as indicated in Table 5.

TABLE 5: BREAKDOWN OF ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT TEST ANSWER SCRIPTS COLLECTED BY SCHOOL AND SEX

SCHOOLS:	BOYS:	GIRLS:	TOTAL:
Rural	106	130	236
Urban	147	135	282
GRAND TOTAL:	253	265	518

The total number of test papers distributed and answer scripts collected was based on the number of subjects available on that particular day. The total was smaller than the total in Table 4 due to two main reasons, i.e.:

- (1) some pupils were absent from school;
- (2) some were involved in extra-mural or outdoor activities (at this time of the year all schools were involved in preparations for the annual inter-school athletic sports).

Likewise, 518 sets of questionnaires were distributed but only 459 were returned by the schools even though a few days' grace was given to obtain all (limitation of time prevented the researcher waiting much

longer for the return of all scripts). Of these, 18 were incomplete and had to be excluded, leaving 441 scripts for analysis. The breakdown of scripts selected for analysis is indicated in Table 6.

TABLE 6: BREAKDOWN OF QUESTIONNAIRES SELECTED FOR ANALYSIS BY SCHOOL AND SEX

SCHOOLS:	BOYS:	GIRLS:	TOTAL:
Rural	87	119	206
Urban	114	121	235
GRAND TOTAL:	201	240	441

### 3.4 ANALYSIS OF DATA

To avoid any possible problems in statistical computation and interpretation, the English test answer scripts selected for analysis were from those subjects whose questionnaires were also selected for analysis. The analysis was carried out by using the frequency, crosstabulation and correlation procedures contained in the SPSSX (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) programme module. Frequency and crosstabulation procedures were used to determine the distribution of variables such as school, sex, socioeconomic status, level of competence and degrees of exposure to English, attitudes, motivation, and encouragement from parents and teachers. The statistical test of significance used was

the chi-square computed jointly with frequency and crosstabulation procedures. The chi-square is the most appropriate means of handling data in the form of frequencies (Isaac & Michael 1981; Robson 1973).

Correlation procedure was employed to compute the correlation coefficients between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables and between the independent variables themselves. This was done to get an idea of the strength of the relationships between the variables.

In the final analysis, Section A of the English test (free composition) was excluded. As many as 33 pupils did not write the composition, probably because they just could not express themselves in English and therefore refused to write. For those who did, their compositions were poorly written (except for a very few) and a large number were written 'half-heartedly' for a few lines. If this section was included in the analysis, it would significantly suppress the total score of pupils giving the impression that the test as a whole was difficult. The problem was, however, not anticipated since in the first pretest it just did not occur.

Finally, scores for the scales (see Table 36 Appendix D) were used as bases to determine the cut-off points distinguishing three categories of extremity of the variables under study, i.e. high-moderate-low (relating to exposure), negative-moderate-positive (relating to attitudes), and strong-moderate-weak

(relating to motivation). Actually there was no hard-and-fast rule as to the procedure adopted in drawing the cut-off points as the categories were fixed according to the options of each individual item in the scales. Thus, based on the scores, the top two-fifths were regarded as representing the high/positive/strong category, the middle one-fifth as representing the moderate category, and the bottom two-fifths as representing the low/negative/weak category.

## CHAPTER FOUR: STATISTICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION (1)

This chapter presents the statistical results of the dependent and independent variables under study based on quantitative data. The objective is to determine the following among the sample, presented in the order of the questions posed in Section 1.4 (Chapter 1):

- (1) The standard of competence in English
- (2) The amount of exposure to English
- (3) The favourableness of attitudes towards the learning of English
- (4) The degree of motivation in the learning of English

### 4.1 DOES THE STANDARD OF ENGLISH COMPETENCE AMONG MALAY-MEDIUM PUPILS INDICATE UNDER-ACHIEVEMENT?

Competence in English in this study refers to the pupil's knowledge of the TL which enables him to produce and understand sentences and to recognise grammatical mistakes and ambiguities, as measured by the English language achievement test, relative to other pupils in his class and in his school. Therefore, in this context, the term also includes communicative competence.

The result of the English test is presented in Table

7 which shows the mean score, standard deviation, minimum score, maximum score, and range based on the total possible score of 49. The standard deviation and range between the minimum and maximum scores are indicative of the pupils' heterogeneity in their standard of English competence. The low mean score is an indication of their weakness in the language.

TABLE 7: TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE, MEAN SCORE, STANDARD DEVIATION, MINIMUM SCORE, MAXIMUM SCORE, AND RANGE ON ENGLISH TEST

VARIABLE:	TOTAL:	MEAN:	S.D.:	MIN:	MAX:	RANGE:
English Test	49	21.678	5.991	8	46	38

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

The distribution of the sample into groupings based on the test score in the row total of Table 8 further exemplifies the extent of the pupils' weakness in the language. A high proportion of the total sample, i.e. 47.2%, scored 20 marks and less, 44.7% scored between 21 to 30 marks, and only 8.2% scored 31 marks and above.



TABLE 8: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON ENGLISH TEST BY SCHOOL

SCORE:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
0-20	109 (52.9%) 97.2 11.8	99 (42.1%) 110.8 -11.8	208 (47.2%)
21-30	85 (41.3%) 92.0 -7.0	112 (47.7%) 105.0 7.0	197 (44.7%)
31-49	12 (5.8%) 16.8 -4.8	24 (10.2%) 19.2 4.8	36 (8.2%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
6.302	2	0.043	16.8	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

The result obtained by the pupils in the SRP English paper can also serve as additional evidence of their weakness in English. The distribution of the sample into groupings based on the SRP grades as provided in the row total of Table 9 indicates that only a small proportion of the sample, i.e. 3.2%, obtained grades 1 and 2 (distinction), 26.3% grades 3 to 6 (credit), as high as 48.1% grades 7 and 8 (pass), and 22.4% grade 9 (fail). The concept of grouping candidates into grades 1 to 9 based on their achievement in the SRP examination is

similar to that of the SPM examination whereby grades 1 to 6 are regarded as a strong pass and 7 to 8 a weak pass. Therefore, based on the available data from both the tables, it can be concluded that the pupils were generally weak in English.

TABLE 9: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON SRP ENGLISH PAPER BY SCHOOL

GRADES:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Distinction (Gr 1-2)	3 (1.5%) 6.5 -3.5	11 (4.7%) 7.5 3.5	14 (3.2%)
Credit (Gr 3-6)	45 (21.8%) 54.2 -9.2	71 (30.2%) 61.8 9.2	116 (26.3%)
Pass (Gr 7-8)	109 (52.9%) 99.0 10.0	103 (43.8%) 113.0 -10.0	212 (48.1%)
Fail (Gr 9)	49 (23.8%) 46.2 2.8	50 (21.3%) 52.8 -2.8	99 (22.4%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
8.710	3	0.033	6.5	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

Thus, the results presented in Tables 7, 8, and 9 seem to provide a positive answer to the above question -

that the level of English competence among the sample indicates under-achievement. The results therefore support the assumption that the level of English competence among Malay-medium pupils is generally low.

#### 4.1.1 Discussion

From the result presented above, it is apparent that the standard of English competence among the pupils was generally low. However, the term standard is used here with qualification - that the standard was low in terms of the pupils' performance in the test and LCE English papers bearing in mind that both papers covered most aspects of the syllabus that they had dealt with throughout their school career. The term standard itself is subjective - what appears to be low to someone might not necessarily be low to others.

Unfortunately, in everyday discussion on the achievement in English among Malay-medium learners, there is a general tendency to think in terms of the standard of English among pupils in the pre-1970s English-medium schools. However, it should be borne in mind that in such schools all subjects, except vernacular languages, were then taught in English. In the process of learning during school hours, and even after school, the pupils were highly exposed to the language. Naturally, it was not uncommon in those days to find pupils highly proficient in English. But, as from 1970 when the

gradual process of phasing out of the English school system was begun and when English was treated as nothing more than a school subject, the standard of English proficiency among pupils declined progressively (Abraham 1979; Jalil 1982; Omar 1982).

Although this conclusion is based on anecdotal accounts without the validation of empirical studies conducted in local settings, results obtained from foreign settings have confirmed the widespread belief that the most efficient L2 learning is informal and occurs when the learner must make communicative use of the language variety to be learned and that learning the TL is most effective when the language is used as a medium of instruction (Lambert et al. 1970; Spolsky 1969; Upshur 1968). 'Although formal and technical learning may have some place in second language learning, it is probable that a faster, more appropriate kind of learning can be attained by shifting the balance in favour of "informal" learning' (Carrol cited in Upshur 1968: 121).

It therefore seems inappropriate to use the term standard to refer to the proficiency level of the pre-1970s English-medium pupils and to compare it with the proficiency level of the present-day Malay-medium pupils who are learning English as a subject. Rodgers, in rejecting this, says:

'The role of English then, although not stated, was the first language of the country for official, business and "high society" social activities. There can never be a comparison of achievement between the two situations; the

first, a high-intensive English learning environment both in school and out of school and the second, where English is learned as a subject in the school curriculum with little or no value in the immediate environment for the majority of learners' (Rodgers 1979: 2).

According to Mohd Hashim (1982) who seems to agree with Rodgers, it is not possible to compare the English proficiency level of the present Malay-medium pupils with that of the former English-medium pupils since those in the first group are being educated in Malay while those in the second group were educated in English. It would be possible, say, to compare the proficiency level of the present ESL learners in Malaysia and that of learners in other countries who are similarly learning English as a subject. As pointed out by Saad:

*'Dalam ujian-ujian seperti TOEFL...yang diberi kepada pelajar-pelajar di seluruh dunia...sebelum mereka diterima masuk ke universiti-universiti di Amerika, didapati pelajar-pelajar kita yang mempelajari bahasa Inggeris sebagai satu mata pelajaran di sekolah mendapat markah yang baik jika dibandingkan dengan pelajar-pelajar dari negara lain yang juga mengambil bahasa Inggeris sebagai satu mata pelajaran' (Saad 1982: 107).*

Translation: In tests like TOEFL...given to students all over the world...before they are being accepted for admission to universities in America, it is found that our students who study English as a subject in schools obtain better scores when compared with students from other countries who also take English as a subject.

Perhaps it is also possible to compare the proficiency level of the present-day Malay-medium pupils and that of the pre-1970s Malay-medium pupils since the

former are and the latter were both educated in Malay and studying English as a subject. In fact, in Malay-medium schools - whether those of the present or those of the pre-1970s - there has really been no obvious decline in the standard of English proficiency among pupils. Again, from the point of view of such pupils, it can be concluded that they are generally weak in English based on their performance in public examinations (Abraham 1979; Balaetham 1982; Doh & Siow 1979; Jalil 1982; Mohd Nor 1982).

The general weakness of Malay-medium pupils in English and the failure of some teachers to understand the learning/teaching problems in schools are akin to those prevalent at the tertiary level (where there is no common ESL curriculum to follow since each institution is free to design and implement its own curriculum). The situation is clearly depicted by Salleh:

'...Malay-medium student has a very poor grasp of the structures despite learning the language right through his school career. In other words, the amount of time spent learning the language cannot be depended upon for a reliable projection of the student's abilities. I feel it is important to point this out here because many, not realising this, have often worked at a level far above the actual achievement level of the student. This has often led to great frustration for both students and teachers alike' (Salleh 1979: 2).

Therefore there needs to be a suitable adjustment of teachers' expectation in respect of learners' performance. As expressed by Keong, teachers have '...to be more appreciative of our pupils' difficulties in

processing what they hear and more sympathetic towards their fumbling attempts to communicate' (Keong 1979: 11). And he adds: 'I am convinced that (with rare exceptions) all our pupils are quite keen to participate and speak spontaneously if they are able to' (ibid.). And the pupils' keenness should be properly utilized.

#### 4.2 IS THERE A DIFFERENCE IN THE STANDARD OF ENGLISH COMPETENCE BETWEEN PUPILS IN RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS?

From the crosstabulation in Table 8, it was observed that the residuals (i.e. the difference between the observed frequency and expected frequency) in both rural and urban cells in the top row were big - positive in the rural cell (i.e. 11.8) and negative in the urban cell (i.e. -11.8). This means that there were more rural pupils and less urban pupils (i.e. 109 and 99 respectively) than expected (i.e. 97.2 and 110.8 respectively) who scored 20 marks and less. The residuals reduced progressively in the respective cells in the middle and bottom rows, negative in the rural cells (i.e. -7 and -4.8) and positive in the urban cells (i.e. 7 and 4.8). This means that there were less rural pupils and more urban pupils than expected who scored 21 marks and above. The value of the chi-square statistic for the table, 6.302 with 2 degrees of freedom, was significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

Therefore, there was significant evidence for an association between schools and competence. The other way of saying this is that there was a significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of standard of English competence, i.e. the rural pupils did not perform as well in English as the urban pupils.

The crosstabulation in Table 9 provided a similar picture. In all cells for the first and second rows there seemed to be less rural pupils and more urban pupils than expected who obtained grades 1 to 6 as indicated by the residuals, i.e. -3.5 as against 3.5 and -9.2 as against 9.2. In the respective cells for the third and fourth rows, the residuals 10 as against -10 and 2.8 as against -2.8, indicated that more rural pupils and less urban pupils than expected obtained grades 7 to 9. The obtained chi-square statistic for the table, 8.710 with 3 degrees of freedom, was significant at  $p < 0.05$ . Therefore, there was a significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of standard of English competence, in favour of urban pupils.

The presence of a relationship between competence and school as indicated in Tables 8 and 9 is further substantiated by the data in Table 30. The correlation yielded a value of  $r = 0.151$   $p < 0.001$  on TEST and SCH and a value of  $r = 0.174$   $p < 0.001$  on SRP and SCH. The low but positively significant correlations suggest that pupils from urban schools performed better in English than those



from rural schools.

From the results presented in Tables 8, 9, and 30, the answer to the above question is positive, supporting the assumption that there is a difference in the standard of English competence between pupils in rural and urban schools, in favour of the latter.

#### 4.2.1 Discussion

The data in Tables 8 and 9 indicated that pupils in urban schools fared better in English than pupils in rural schools, a difference that has long been observed by teachers of ESL (Chandrasegaran 1979; Doh & Siow 1979; Keong 1979; Rajagopal 1976). It is suspected that this is due to the difference in the quality of instruction in both types of school, a factor which was rejected by Chandrasegaran (ibid.) and which, in this research, cannot be dismissed lightly. However, we will return to this very shortly.

In the Selangor study, among a sample of 240 Malay-medium pupils (120 rural and 120 urban), Rajagopal (ibid.) observed a marked difference in scores between the rural and urban pupils. Only one rural pupil scored above 70% as against 28 urban pupils; and only 25% of the former obtained scores above the mean (i.e. 48.72) as against 70% of the latter. The more isolated the location of the rural school, the lower was the achievement among pupils. Unfortunately, no reason for

this was provided (as this was not part of the study), and therefore it is suspected here that this was related to the difference in exposure to English between the rural and urban pupils (as was noted by Chandrasegaran below) since, in the early 1970s, English was still dominant in the urban areas.

Chandrasegaran (ibid.), in a study among a sample of 477 Malay-medium pupils (275 rural and 202 urban), also observed the superiority of the urban pupils in terms of competence. The coefficient between school and competence was small, i.e. 0.095, yet significant at  $p < 0.05$ . She, however, attributed exposure as one of the possible factors for the difference between the two groups (see Section 5.1.2). Incidentally her urban sample appeared to be superior to her rural sample in terms of exposure to English and this might have led her to such a conclusion. She rejected quality of instruction in schools as a factor for two reasons: (1) all government schools - both rural and urban - followed the same curriculum and (2) such schools were staffed by teachers of similar qualifications.

Reason (1) was a concrete fact. Reason (2) might be true in the 1970s and earlier when Malay-medium secondary schools were at their humble beginning, not well equipped and staffed mostly by college trained teachers; thus 'teachers of similar qualifications' (ibid.: 83). The few graduate teachers, if ever available, would prefer to

serve in the more prestigious English schools.

But, this is not anymore true in the present situation. The rural schools are always at a disadvantage in terms of supply of trained English teachers (see Table 10) as well as in terms of teachers' teaching experience (see Table 21). To overcome the acute shortage, teachers of other subjects (especially those who are English educated) who have less teaching load will be assigned the task of teaching English.

TABLE 10: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH (TRAINED AND UNTRAINED) BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL:	TYPE		TOTAL:
	TRAINED:	UNTRAINED:	
Rural	40.5	59.5	100.0 (N=37)
Urban	67.3	32.7	100.0 (N=49)

NOTE:

- (1) Trained teachers of English range from those with certificate in TESL/TEFL (three or six-month course), Diploma in TESL/TEFL (nine or twelve-month course) postgraduate Diploma in Education (major in TESL/TEFL), or degree in TESL/TEFL/Applied Linguistics.
- (2) Untrained teachers of English are those trained to teach other subjects (except English).

The shortage of school teachers was at one time, and still is, a grave problem the Ministry has to face. With the increase in numbers of the school-going population, the demand for school teachers continues to increase. In 1971, there were about 1,957,517 school pupils (all

mediums from Standard One to Form Five) in Peninsular Malaysia; in 1978 the figure rose to 2,486,549. In 1975, about 77,488 school teachers were needed and there were only 66,370 available (*Laporan Jawatankuasa Kabinet 1984*).

With the increase in the establishment of training centres and the intake of trainees, the shortage of teachers has gradually been overcome. Unfortunately, this involves only other subject teachers while the shortage of English teachers is still an ongoing problem. This is simply because, with the extinction of the English school system, it is now difficult to find sufficient numbers of school leavers proficient enough in English to be trained as teachers of English. 'In 1985, the Education Ministry had 3,230 vacant English teaching positions. Out of these, only 1,195 were expected to be filled. Official estimates say that at least 3,000 teachers are needed by 1990' (Fuad 1987: 11).

However, the Ministry has taken several measures to deal with the problem. Among these are the introduction of TESL programmes in local institutions and the retraining of serving teachers of other subjects (which in some schools are already in excess) involved in the teaching of English as specialist teachers of ESL. Some successful candidates (among school leavers and serving teachers) are sent overseas for training. The British Council is also assisting the Ministry towards achieving this end by providing scholarships for some of those who

are undergoing training in Britain. At the same time, the British VSO is providing personnel to teach English in local schools and to train teachers of ESL in local training centres.

#### 4.3 ARE MALAY-MEDIUM PUPILS SUFFICIENTLY EXPOSED TO ENGLISH?

Section II of the questionnaire consisted of items aimed at measuring the amount of exposure to written English, radio and television English and unscripted spoken English.

##### 4.3.1 Exposure to Written English

###### 4.3.1.1 Analysis of Responses

The pupils were presented with eight items (items 7 to 14) meant to determine the amount of contact that they had with reading materials such as books, magazines/periodicals, and newspapers. Five of the items (items 8, 10, 11, 13 and 14) specifically referred to reading materials in English. Of these, two were open-ended items (nos. 11 and 14) requesting the pupils to write the required information. The distribution of responses to these items (excluding responses to items 11 and 14) is presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON EXPOSURE TO WRITTEN ENGLISH

ITEM:	FREQUENCY:
7 Do you read books from the school library or from any other sources (e.g. public library, etc)?	
A Yes	381 (86.4%)
B No	60 (13.6%)
8 If NO, proceed to Question 9. If YES, out of the books you read every month, how many are English books?	
A Four or more	17 (3.9%)
B Two or three	86 (19.5%)
C One	94 (21.3%)
D Part of one book	68 (15.4%)
E None	116 (26.3%)
*Not applicable	60 (13.6%)
9 Does your family buy magazines or periodicals?	
A Yes	236 (53.5%)
B No	205 (46.5%)
10 If NO, proceed to Question 12. If YES, how many are English magazines or periodicals out of those bought every month?	
A Four or more	4 (0.9%)
B Three	13 (2.9%)
C Two	35 (7.9%)
D One	57 (12.9%)
E None	127 (28.8%)
*Not applicable	205 (46.5%)
12 Is any newspaper available in your home?	
A Yes	373 (84.6%)
B No	68 (15.4%)

13 If NO, proceed to Question 15. If YES, how many days a week is an English newspaper available in your home?

A Everyday of the week	12	(2.7%)
B Five or six days	15	(3.4%)
C Three or four days	18	(4.1%)
D One or two days	124	(28.1%)
E None	204	(46.3%)
*Not applicable	68	(15.4%)

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\*Not applicable refers to those who stated 'no' to items 7, 9 and 12.

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

Responses to item 7 indicate that a very high proportion of the pupils read books, i.e. 86.4%. But, as indicated by the responses to item 8, only 23.4% of the total sample read two or more English books per month (options A and B), 21.3% read one book per month (option C), and the rest less than one (options D and E).

In item 9, 53.5% of the total sample stated that their family bought magazines/periodicals every month. However, as seen in item 10, only 3.8% of them bought three or more English magazines/periodicals every month (options A and B), 7.9% two magazines/periodicals per month (option C), and the rest not more than one (options D and E). Still, very few responded to item 11 (an open-ended item requesting the pupils to name the magazines/periodicals bought) compared to the total frequency for options A, B, C and D in combination. Among the responses, those named were 'Readers' Digest' (9), 'Asia Magazine' (9), 'Sports World' (5), 'Her World' (5), 'Weekend' (4), and 'Family' (3). Other magazines

were also mentioned, i.e. 'Asia Week' (2), 'Newsweek' (2), 'The Geographical Magazine' (2), 'Cosmopolitan' (1), 'Fashion' (1), 'Review' (1), 'Female' (1), 'Vogue' (1), 'Living' (1), 'Soccer' (1), and 'Smash Hits' (1).

In item 12, 84.6% of the pupils stated that newspapers were available at home and, based on the responses to item 13, 6.1% stated that English newspapers were available at home for five or more days a week (options A and B), 4.1% three or four days a week (option C), and the rest two days or less a week (options D and E). In response to item 14 (an open-ended item requesting the pupils to name the English newspapers bought) by those who did, the frequently named ones were the 'New Straits Times' (76) and its Sunday issue 'New Sunday Time' (34), the 'Malay Mail' (31) and its Sunday issue 'Sunday Mail' (6), and the 'Star' (42) and its Sunday issue 'Sunday Star' (2). These were, in fact, the only English newspapers widely circulated throughout the country. It is noted that the total frequency is greater than the total frequency for options A, B, C and D in combination merely because some of the pupils named more than one newspaper as being available at home.

#### 4.3.1.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

It is observed in the row total of Table 12 that overall the pupils' degree of contact with reading materials in the TL was low. The proportion of those in the low



exposure group is 83.2%, decreasing tremendously to 14.5% in the moderate group and 2.3% in the high group. The data therefore support the assumption that Malay-medium pupils generally receive low exposure to written English.

TABLE 12: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON EXPOSURE TO WRITTEN ENGLISH BY SCHOOL

EXPOSURE:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Low	174 (84.5%) 171.4 2.6	193 (82.1%) 195.6 -2.6	367 (83.2%)
Moderate	26 (12.6%) 29.9 -3.9	38 (16.2%) 34.1 3.9	64 (14.5%)
High	6 (2.9%) 4.7 1.3	4 (1.7%) 5.3 -1.3	10 (2.3%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
1.734	2	0.420	4.7	1 of 6 (16.7%)

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

The table demonstrates that the residuals in all cells are close to zero meaning that there is not much association between schools and exposure to written English. Another point to note is that the expected

frequency in the rural cell of the bottom row is 4.7. Statisticians differ slightly as to what the acceptable minimum expected frequency for a chi-square test should be. Some suggest that the test should not be used if one or more of the expected frequencies are  $<5$  (Burroughs 1975; Isaac & Michael 1981; Robson 1973). But some were of the opinion that the test should only be rejected if any of the expected frequencies is  $<1$  or if more than 20% of them are  $<5$  (Clark 1977; Norusis 1986). However, the minimum expected frequency in the table, i.e. 4.7, is close to 5 and only one cell out of the six has got this problem. So, the chi-square statistic can be used with confidence. As expected, the obtained value of chi-square is small, i.e. 1.734 with 2 degrees of freedom, insignificant at  $p0.05$ . It can therefore be concluded that there is no significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of degree of exposure to written English. Whatever differences that exist in the sample data are due to chance.

#### 4.3.2 Exposure to Radio and Television English

##### 4.3.2.1 Analysis of Responses

Five items (items 15-19) were presented to the pupils aimed at measuring their degree of exposure to radio and television programmes. Three items (i.e. items 16, 17, and 19) pertained specifically to contact with the TL

that the learners had through the media concerned. The distribution of responses to these items is presented in Table 13.

TABLE 13: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON EXPOSURE TO RADIO AND TELEVISION PROGRAMMES IN ENGLISH

ITEM:	FREQUENCY:
15 Do you watch television?	
A Yes	435 (98.6%)
B No	6 (1.4%)
16 If NO, proceed to Question 18. If YES, how many hours do you spend watching English programmes in an average week?	
A Eight or more	86 (19.5%)
B Six to seven	66 (15.0%)
C Four to five	115 (26.1%)
D Two to three	119 (27.0%)
E One or less than one	49 (11.1%)
*Not applicable	6 (1.4%)
17 When you are watching English programmes, do you listen to the dialogue or read the subtitles?	
A Usually listen to the dialogue and never or seldom read the subtitles	14 (3.2%)
B Usually listen to the dialogue but sometimes read the subtitles	152 (34.5%)
C Usually read the subtitles but sometimes listen to the dialogue	228 (51.7%)
D Usually read the subtitles and seldom listen to the dialogue	24 (5.4%)
E Always read the subtitles	17 (3.9%)
*Not applicable	6 (1.4%)
18 Do you listen to Radio Malaysia programmes or any foreign ones?	
A Yes	365 (82.8%)
B No	76 (17.2%)

19 If NO, proceed to Question 20. If YES, how many hours a week do you usually spend listening to local English programmes or those of Radio Singapore, the BBC, the Voice of America, etc.?

A Four hours or more	15	(3.4%)
B About three hours	22	(5.0%)
C About two hours	60	(13.6%)
D About one hour	133	(30.2%)
E None	135	(30.6%)
*Not Applicable	76	(17.2%)

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\*Not applicable refers to those who stated 'no' to items 15 and 18.

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

In item 15 almost all the sample reported that they watched television. And as indicated by the responses to item 16, 34.5% of the total sample watched English programmes for six or more hours per week (options A and B), 26.1% four to five hours per week (option C), and the rest three hours and less (options D and E). Of those who watched English programmes, 37.7% were less dependent on the subtitles (item 17 options A and B), 51.7% usually dependent on the subtitles (option C), and the rest highly dependent on the subtitles (options D and E). The high proportion of those who were usually or always dependent on the subtitles with minimal or no attempt to listen to and understand the dialogue is an indication of the pupils' inability to understand English as spoken on television and they had therefore to rely on the subtitles in Malay.

Item 18 also indicates that a high proportion of the sample listened to radio programmes, i.e. 82.8%.

However, only 8.4% of the sample (item 19) listened to English programmes for about three hours or more per week (options A and B), 13.6% about two hours (option C), and the rest about one hour or less (options D and E).

#### 4.3.2.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

The pupils' overall contact with English through radio and television programmes (see Table 14) seems to be highest when compared to their exposure to the TL through reading materials and, as will be seen in a moment, when compared to their contact with unscripted spoken English. Still the overall exposure to English programmes can be considered low. The row total indicates that 39.2% of the pupils were in the low exposure group, 49.4% in the moderate group, and only 11.3% in the high group. The data seem to support the assumption (Chapter 1) that Malay-medium pupils generally receive a low amount of exposure to radio and television English.

TABLE 14: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON EXPOSURE TO RADIO AND TELEVISION ENGLISH BY SCHOOL

EXPOSURE:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Low	85 (41.3%) 80.8 4.2	88 (37.4%) 92.2 -4.2	173 (39.2%)
Moderate	100 (48.5%) 101.8 -1.8	118 (50.2%) 116.2 1.8	218 (49.4%)
High	21 (10.2%) 23.4 -2.4	29 (12.3%) 26.6 2.4	50 (11.3%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
0.915	2	0.632	23.4	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

In the table, the chi-square statistic indicates that there is no significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in their degree of exposure to radio and television English.

#### 4.3.3 Exposure to Unscripted Spoken English

Unscripted spoken English in this research refers to English as spoken in day-to-day casual verbal interaction with family members and friends.

### 4.3.3.1 Analysis of Responses

There were three items (nos. 20-22) meant to measure the degree of contact with unscripted spoken English that the pupils received in their daily verbal interaction especially with friends and family members. Item 22 was included in case there were pupils who learnt English as an L1 at home just as it was among a few families during the heyday of English as an official language in the country. The distribution of responses to these items is presented in Table 15.

TABLE 15: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON EXPOSURE TO UNSCRIPTED SPOKEN ENGLISH

ITEM:	FREQUENCY:
20 When you talk to your friends who know English, how often do you use English?	
A Always	5 (1.1%)
B Very often	18 (4.1%)
C Sometimes	199 (45.1%)
D Seldom	147 (33.3%)
E Never	72 (16.3%)
21 How often do you use English at home when speaking to members of your family?	
A Always	0
B Very often	4 (0.9%)
C Sometimes	85 (19.3%)
D Seldom	151 (34.2%)
E Never	201 (45.6%)
22 What was the first language you learnt at home (before you started schooling)?	
A English	5 (1.1%)
B Malay	436 (98.9%)

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

Very few attempted to use English when interacting with friends who knew English (item 20), just 5.2% (options A and B) as against 49.6% of those who seldom/never used the language for the same purpose (options D and E). The proportion of those who used English when interacting with family members (item 21) is still very much lower, less than 1% (options A and B) as against 79.8% of those who seldom/never used the language (options D and E).

Finally, in item 22, almost all of the sample reported that they learnt Malay as their L1 at home before schooling. This result was expected from the outset and, in fact, nobody was expected to choose option A. Very likely, those who learnt English before schooling (Option A) referred to the few words of English used when interacting with family members who might themselves be English-educated, or at the very least, had learnt some English before.

#### 4.3.3.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

As observed in the column total of Table 16, the contact that the pupils received with unscripted spoken English appears to be almost similar in degree when compared with their exposure to written English, i.e. very low. The proportion of those in the low group is 80.5%, rapidly decreasing to 16.8% in the moderate group, and just 2.7%



in the high group. The results again support the assumption that Malay-medium pupils generally receive a low amount of exposure to unscripted spoken English.

TABLE 16: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON EXPOSURE TO UNSCRIPTED SPOKEN ENGLISH BY SCHOOL

EXPOSURE:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Low	167 (81.1%) 165.8 1.2	188 (80.0%) 189.2 -1.2	355 (80.5%)
Moderate	37 (18.0%) 34.6 2.4	37 (15.7%) 39.4 -2.4	74 (16.8%)
High	2 (1.0%) 5.6 -3.6	10 (4.3%) 6.4 3.6	12 (2.7%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
4.690	2	0.095	5.6	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

As indicated by the chi-square statistic in the table, there is no significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of degree of exposure to unscripted spoken English.

#### 4.3.4 Discussion

The data in Tables 11 to 16 demonstrated that, overall, the pupils received less contact with English. They were not highly exposed to written English since very few of them read English books, magazines/periodicals and newspapers sufficiently. Their contact with the language through radio and television, which was slightly higher than their contact with the written and unscripted spoken forms of the language, might possibly be due to the entertaining nature of the media. In the case of television, there were Malay subtitles accompanying the English programmes for them to depend on. Many viewers might not be listening to the dialogue at all, because there were sufficient non-verbal cues to provide satisfaction (Keong 1979). Hence, programmes like 'Dallas', 'Dynasty', 'Night Rider', 'Miami Vice', and many more popular ones were all irresistible to the audience. Likewise, pop music television programmes were equally popular especially among youngsters. Most of these programmes were American in origin and therefore, through television, the viewers were more exposed to American English than they were to British English.

They did not listen to English radio programmes as much as they watched television. After all, among the audience, an audio entertainment such as radio was not as popular as a visual entertainment such as television;

this was coupled by the advance of video entertainment.

The amount of exposure to unscripted spoken forms of the TL among them was also minimal. However, this is nothing new to the Malays in general; even if English is used, very frequently it is used partially as there is always the tendency to switch from the L2 (English) to the L1 (Malay) and vice versa. Or the L2 might be extensively used with some members of the family but with other members the L1 might be fully used instead. Full use of English with the entire family members is rare because it is very seldom that all in the family can speak the language.

The overall results in all tables above accord with the finding by Chandrasegaran (1979) who observed that as high as 88.7% of the sample were in the low exposure group, 11.3% in the moderate group and none in the high group. From the results, Chandrasegaran concluded that generally Malay-medium pupils were not highly exposed to English.

As an additional finding, Tables 12, 14 and 16 indicated that there was no difference in being in rural or urban schools in terms of exposure to written English, radio and television English and unscripted spoken English - both the rural and urban pupils were equally low in their overall exposure to the TL. This is sustained by the insignificant coefficients (Table 30) between ERM and SCH, ERT and SCH and between ESE and SCH.

This finding, however, is contrary to that of

Chandrasegaran (ibid.). The rural pupils in her study seemed to receive less contact with English than the urban pupils. With the value of chi-square being as big as 4.351 with 1 degree of freedom significant at  $p < 0.05$ , Chandrasegaran concluded that there was a significant difference between rural and urban pupils in terms of overall exposure to the TL. Her reason for this was that contact with English through the mass media, reading material and English-speaking people was more readily available in urban areas than it was in rural areas.

But why is there no significant difference in exposure to English between both groups in the present study in that both equally received low exposure to the language? The only possible explanation is that the situation of the 1970s (the time when Chandrasegaran conducted her study) and that of the present is different. In those days the English school system, though already in the process of being phased out, was in existence at least at the upper secondary level. Therefore, opportunities of contact with the English language were still available. This was especially so in the urban areas (recall that most of the English-medium schools were in the major towns) where English was widely used for communication. But today the situation has changed greatly with Malay being fully used as the medium of instruction in both rural and urban schools and widely used in the tertiary institutions. Students nowadays find themselves more at ease communicating in Malay than in English.

#### 4.4 ARE ATTITUDES IN THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH AMONG MALAY-MEDIUM PUPILS SUFFICIENTLY FAVOURABLE?

Items in Section III of the questionnaire were meant to measure two types of attitudes, i.e. attitude towards the TL and attitude towards the TL speakers.

Actually, it is difficult to measure attitudes and there is as yet no best method of measuring them. As it is, researchers have no choice but to depend on whatever techniques or instruments at their disposal. All available measuring scales, like most other measures used in the social sciences for data collection, are not without their weaknesses; their reliability and validity have often been questioned (Oller 1981; Oller & Perkins 1978; Stern 1983). But, this should not be taken as a deterrent for the advancement of research.

##### 4.4.1 Attitude Towards the TL

###### 4.4.1.1 Analysis of Responses

Five items were presented to the pupils (nos. 23-27) the purpose of which was to determine the degree of favourableness of attitude towards the TL. The distribution of responses to these items is presented in Table 17.

TABLE 17: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON  
ATTITUDE TOWARDS ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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ITEM:

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23	Malays who can speak English are smarter in their studies than those who can't				
(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
15	85	154	153	34	
(3.4%)	(19.3%)	(34.9%)	(34.7%)	(7.7%)	
24	It is important that our ministers and members of parliament should be able to speak English				
(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
6	13	11	131	280	
(1.4%)	(2.9%)	(2.5%)	(29.7%)	(63.5%)	
25	When I hear someone speaking English fluently, I wish I could speak likewise				
(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
2	4	55	144	236	
(0.5%)	(0.9%)	(12.5%)	(32.7%)	(53.5%)	
26	Malays should not study English because it is synonymous with Christianity				
(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
161	199	67	8	6	
(36.5%)	(45.1%)	(15.2%)	(1.8%)	(1.4%)	
27	English should be excluded from the school curriculum because it is a colonial language				
(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
159	206	50	16	10	
(36.1%)	(46.7%)	(11.3%)	(3.6%)	(2.3%)	

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(A) Strongly disagree  
(B) Disagree  
(C) Uncertain  
(D) Agree  
(E) Strongly agree

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

Of the sample, 42.4% agreed that English-educated

Malays are smarter in their studies (item 23 options D and E), as against 22.7% who disagreed (options A and B), 93.2% agreed that ministers and members of parliament should be able to speak English (item 24 options D and E) as against 4.3% who disagreed (options A and B), and 86.2% wished that they could speak English fluently like others (item 25 options D and E) as against 1.4% who disagreed. Statements in items 26 and 27 reflect the feelings of some Malays who have been inspired by nationalism in South-east Asia and the Middle East in the late 19th and 20th centuries, and of late, by the awakening of Muslim fundamentalism worldwide. Therefore, such feelings have been in persistence in the country since the early days of English colonialism. As they have generally been thought to influence the minds of some pupils to a certain degree, they were included in the questionnaire in order to determine their strength. However, the majority were still in favour of English, 81.6% and 82.8% (options A and B) as against 3.2% and 5.9% (options D and E) respectively.

#### 4.4.1.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

The row total in Table 18 indicates that the pupils' attitude towards the TL was generally very favourable, rejecting the assumption that Malay-medium pupils are generally unfavourable in their attitude towards the

English language. The proportion of those in the positive group is very high, i.e. 89.1%, in the moderate group only 10.9%, and in the negative group nil.

TABLE 18: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS ENGLISH LANGUAGE BY SCHOOL

ATTITUDE:	SCHOOL		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Moderate	26 (12.6%) 22.4 3.6	22 (9.4%) 25.6 -3.6	48 (10.9%)
Positive	180 (87.4%) 183.6 -3.6	213 (90.6%) 209.4 3.6	393 (89.1%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
0.890	1	0.350	22.4	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

As indicated by the obtained value of the chi-square statistic, there is no significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of favourableness of attitude towards the TL.

#### 4.4.2 Attitude Towards the TL Speakers

TL speakers in this study refers to any group of people



who speak English. They may either be native speakers of English from the English-speaking countries or, to some pupils in the sample, English-educated Malaysians who speak English exclusively .except when communication situations demand the use of other language/languages. Therefore, with the inclusion of those who are not native speakers of English but who speak the language, the TL speakers in this study differ slightly from those of the Canadian or American studies.

#### 4.4.2.1 Analysis of Responses

The degree of favourableness of the pupils' attitude towards the TL speakers was measured by five items (nos. 28-32). The distribution of responses to the items is presented in Table 19.

TABLE 19: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS  
ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS SPEAKERS OF  
ENGLISH

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ITEM:

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28 English-speaking people have contributed to the development of Malaysia	(A) 14 (3.2%)	(B) 29 (6.6%)	(C) 193 (43.8%)	(D) 163 (37.0%)	(E) 42 (9.5%)
29 Malays should make a greater effort to meet more English-speaking people	(A) 4 (0.9%)	(B) 39 (8.8%)	(C) 150 (34.0%)	(D) 201 (45.6%)	(E) 47 (10.7%)
30 English-speaking people are more dependable and more polite than many Malays	(A) 109 (24.7%)	(B) 162 (36.7%)	(C) 154 (34.9%)	(D) 11 (2.5%)	(E) 5 (1.1%)
31 English-speaking people are more generous and hospitable to strangers	(A) 45 (10.2%)	(B) 104 (23.6%)	(C) 261 (59.2%)	(D) 25 (5.7%)	(E) 6 (1.4%)
32 If Malaysia should lose the influence of English-speaking people, it would be a deep loss	(A) 15 (3.4%)	(B) 63 (14.3%)	(C) 188 (42.6%)	(D) 134 (30.4%)	(E) 41 (9.3%)

- 
- (A) Strongly disagree
  - (B) Disagree
  - (C) Uncertain
  - (D) Agree
  - (E) Strongly agree

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

From the table, 46.5% of the pupils agreed that

English-speaking people had contributed to the development of Malaysia (item 28 options D and E) as against 9.8% who disagreed (options A and B), 56.3% agreed that Malays should meet more English-speaking people (item 29 options D and E) as against 9.7% who disagreed (options A and B), and 39.7% agreed that losing the influence of English-speaking people would be a deep loss (item 32 options D and E) as against 17.7% who disagreed (options A and B). That the majority did not agree with items 30 and 31 is understandable; being Malays themselves, their allegiance towards their own people was naturally strong. For item 30, 61.4% disagreed that English-speaking people were more dependable and more polite than many Malays (options A and B) as against 3.6% who agreed (options D and E). For item 31, 33.8% disagreed that English-speaking people were more generous and hospitable to strangers (options A and B) as against 7.1% who agreed (options D and E).

#### 4.4.2.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

The pupils' attitude towards the TL speakers was not as strong as their attitude towards the TL itself. As indicated in the row total of Table 20, the proportion of pupils in the positive group is 17.5%, in the moderate group 58%, and in the negative group 24.5%. Clearly, their attitude towards the TL speakers was generally moderately favourable. The results therefore reject the

assumption that Malay-medium pupils are generally unfavourable in their attitude towards speakers of English.

TABLE 20: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH BY SCHOOL

ATTITUDE:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Negative	49 (23.8%) 50.4 -1.4	59 (25.1%) 57.6 1.4	108 (24.5%)
Moderate	120 (58.3%) 119.6 0.4	136 (57.9%) 136.4 -0.4	256 (58.0%)
Positive	37 (18.0%) 36.0 1.0	40 (17.0%) 41.0 -1.0	77 (17.5%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
0.136	2	0.934	36	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

The table demonstrates that there is no significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of degree of attitude towards the TL speakers.

#### 4.4.3 Discussion

From Tables 18 and 20, it was observed that the pupils were very favourable in their attitudes towards the TL and its speakers. And since attitudes towards the TL and its speakers are treated as attitudes towards the learning of English, the assumption that Malay-medium pupils generally do not have favourable attitudes towards the learning of the language (Abdul Hamid 1985; Abraham 1979; Balaetham 1982; Doh & Siow 1979; Keong 1979; Rodgers 1979) is refuted. However, this is not to deny that, among learners, there might be a handful whose attitudes are less favourable; but this is not peculiar to English alone (compared with other subjects).

The finding accords with that of Chandrasegaran (1979). Of the total sample in her study, 44.4% were in the favourable group, 49.3% in the moderately favourable group, and only 6.3% in the unfavourable group. This was accepted by the author as a reflection of the real situation - the favourable climate towards English was still in existence in spite of the changing language situation.

Personal observations have shown that it is the failure among some teachers (especially the young and the inexperienced ones) to understand the pupils' learning situation and their characteristics as individuals that have given rise to the assumption that the pupils' attitudes in the learning of English are unfavourable.

The teachers have a low opinion and low expectation of their pupils resulting in unfavourable reaction from the pupils themselves. The teachers might be from different sociocultural backgrounds (note the multiracial nature of the country - Section 1.1) and therefore 'alien' to the sociocultural traditions of their pupils (see Section 1.2.1.2). But, unfortunately, the teachers are seldom aware of their attitudes (Ghani 1979). In addition, the teachers might come from a variety of educational backgrounds. Or, they might be teachers of other subjects and therefore lack the insight of linguistic, psychological, sociological and methodological aspects of L2 teaching. Worse still, the teachers themselves might be poorly proficient in the language and are teaching the subject for 'having to teach' it. Naturally, a great range of difference among them in dealing with pupils is to be expected (Alptekin 1981).

Further, there is the 'undeclared' policy of the Ministry of Education with respect to the posting of teachers which might have added some weight to the problem. The common practice of the Ministry is to send most of the newly trained young teachers to serve in rural schools since in such schools the shortage of English teachers is greatly felt. Long serving and experienced teachers usually refuse to serve in the schools for too long, their preference being the established (former English-medium) schools in towns. Those who stay put are mostly locals or those who have

decided to for other reasons. Therefore the semi-urban and rural schools will continue to be staffed mostly by new and inexperienced teachers (see Table 21). For the unfortunate ones who are unfamiliar with rural life, the schools they are posted to might be in the remote corners of the country. As qualified teachers, they are left on their own, groping in the 'strange' new environment. Sometimes, they will be at a loss and some end up in frustration and despair, just counting the days to their transfer to the 'outside' world to join their seniors.

TABLE 21: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ENGLISH TEACHERS BASED ON YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL:	TEACHING EXPERIENCE						TOTAL:
	-5 Yrs:	6-10 Yrs:	11-15 Yrs:	16-20 Yrs:	21-25 Yrs:	+26 Yrs:	
Rural	73.0	18.9	5.4	2.7	-	-	100.0 (N=37)
Urban	30.6	32.7	6.1	18.4	10.2	2.0	100.0 (N=49)

The pupils might have come from the kampongs, small towns or the state capitals and from varied socioeconomic backgrounds. But, generally, they have one thing in common - in their upbringing they have been subjected to Malay sociocultural norms wherein, among others, respect for authority and the elderly is expected. In class, in front of their teacher - the authority - they appear to be passive. In reality, they are shy but, given the

proper encouragement, they would respond actively. Unfortunately, their passiveness has often been misinterpreted by the teacher who, on his part, might be trying his best to help the pupils; but he has perhaps miscalculated the effect of his action on them and, consequently, this results in failure (Ghani 1979).

It has to be re-emphasized here that, of course, this refers only to a handful of teachers. It is unfair to put the blame on teachers in general because '...there are many among them who are dedicated and conscientious - few would deliberately shirk their responsibilities. If there are any who do so, it is very probably because they themselves are ill-equipped for the job and have been forced to teach English owing to a shortage of staff' (Fernandez 1987: 11).

On the part of the pupils themselves, their shyness and reluctance to practise speaking English have some sociopsychological reasons behind them. They are generally reticent but unfortunately this has been taken for laziness, passiveness, and unfavourableness of attitudes whereas in reality it is not. Actually, the pupils lack the confidence and are shy to speak English for fear of making mistakes since Malays are generally concerned with good public image (Balaetham 1982; Ghani 1979). It has been proven that shyness affects performance in the TL; the less shy the learners are, the better they perform (Hamayan et al. 1977).

Sometimes, it is the environment that is



discouraging and, as pointed out by Cheong (1983), the outcome is certainly detrimental to the achievement of proficiency. The pupils are living in an environment wherein those who tried to speak English might be ridiculed (Balaetham 1982; Wariya 1985) or might be looked upon as showing off (Ghani 1979). At the same time, the general feeling is that the ability to speak English is regarded as a sign of belonging to a higher class and a symbol of urbanization although '...not all urban people are English-speaking' (Omar 1975) - an ability that most people craved for as proven by the responses to item 25 in Table 17. Their expressed lack of interest in English - if it is ever expressed - is merely to be apologetic for their being weak in the language. Malay-medium learners of ESL are therefore in a state of dilemma.

Such 'internal conflict' among Malay pupils towards the learning of English is described by Fernandez thus:

'The majority of students in the rural and suburban areas are fully aware that in Malaysia they can survive reasonably well without having to know much English.

'However, these same students nurture a secret desire to be able to speak and write better English. Teachers serving in these schools will testify this. When you first meet this group of learners, they will attempt to feign indifference towards the language. Some of them even appear to be openly hostile when they are asked to use English during the English lesson.

'A discerning teacher will, however, quickly realise that this apparent distaste for the language is very often a mere cover-up for their inadequacies in the language' (Fernandez 1987: 11).

Another point is that the pupils in general might appear to lay low priority on English and devote little time to the study of the language. Again, this should not be taken to imply unfavourableness of attitudes. It might be just that, especially when an examination is approaching, they have to devote more time to other '...compulsory and essential subjects which are prerequisites to certification' (Rodgers 1979: 12) (see also Sections 1.3.2 and 1.3.5).

As an additional finding, a comparison between the rural and urban pupils in Tables 18 and 20 indicated that there was no real difference between them in terms of attitudes. This assertion is sustained by the insignificant coefficients in Table 30 between ATL and SCH and between ATS and SCH. In the Johor study (Chandrasegaran 1979) the same result was observed; with the obtained chi-square=1.028 with 2 degrees of freedom, the difference was therefore insignificant at  $p < 0.05$ . The reason for this lack of significant difference was that Malay pupils, both in the rural and urban schools, were equally homogeneous in their attitudes towards the learning of ESL, i.e. favourable.

As was mentioned in Section 2.2.2, the favourableness of attitude towards the TL among pupils is an undisputable fact because, since colonisation, the prestige of English among Malaysians in general has always been high. Responses to items 23-27 of the questionnaire given in Table 17 confirmed this point.

Even the unfavourable statements towards English as being a colonial language and synonymous with Christianity which were thought to be among the negative elements contributing to low proficiency were not really dominant as confirmed by the responses to items 26 and 27.

In the Selangor study (Rajagopal 1976), however, a significant difference in attitudes between the rural and urban pupils was observed. With the obtained  $t=3.931$  with 238 degrees of freedom, the difference was significant at  $p<0.01$ . Nevertheless, no reason for this was given and therefore it is suspected here that this must be related to the difference in the degree of exposure to the TL (as it was with competence discussed in Section 4.2.1).

Undoubtedly, through time, a gradual change in the ESL learning situation in the country has taken place. As far back as 1976 and a few years earlier (the period covered by the Selangor survey) during the early phase of the transition period, the English school system was still in existence at least at the higher level of primary and at all levels of secondary schooling. Recall again that most of the English schools at the time were mostly in the major towns, exposure to the TL that urban pupils received - be they from the English-medium or the Malay-medium schools - was high. It was this difference in exposure to the TL that might have caused the difference in attitudes between the two groups of pupils

in the Selangor study.

During the later phase of the transition period (i.e. the time the Johor survey was conducted), the situation had changed slightly - the English school system that still remained was only at the secondary level. The observed difference in exposure to the TL between rural and urban pupils was significant, but the difference in overall attitudes was insignificant. In spite of this, the chi-square value for attitudes observed in the Johor survey was slightly higher when compared to all the chi-square values in the present study. This indicates that the degree of difference in attitudes towards the learning of English in the late 1970s between the two groups of pupils was still slightly higher though not as highly significant to that observed in the Selangor study. Lately, the situation has changed completely; there is no difference in exposure to the TL received by both groups in the sample data and consequently no difference in attitudes.

#### 4.5 IS MOTIVATION IN THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH AMONG MALAY-MEDIUM PUPILS SUFFICIENTLY STRONG?

The scale in Section IV consists of four sets of items as indices for measuring four distinct aspects of motivation, i.e. instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, desire to learn English, and motivational intensity.

##### 4.5.1 Instrumental Orientation of Motivation

###### 4.5.1.1 Analysis of Responses

The pupils' degree of instrumental motivation was measured by four items (nos. 33-36). The result of the distribution of responses to these items is presented in Table 22.

TABLE 22: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS  
ON INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION

ITEM:

33 Knowledge of English was very useful for further studies

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
10	14	14	129	274
(2.3%)	(3.2%)	(3.2%)	(29.3%)	(62.1%)

34 One needs a good knowledge of English to merit social recognition

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
75	149	81	102	34
(17.0%)	(33.8%)	(18.4%)	(23.1%)	(7.7%)

35 I study English because it will some day be useful in getting a good job

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
8	20	30	157	226
(1.8%)	(4.5%)	(6.8%)	(35.6%)	(51.2%)

36 I feel that no one is really educated unless he is fluent in English

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
54	153	94	89	51
(12.2%)	(34.7%)	(21.3%)	(20.2%)	(11.6%)

(A) Definitely not my feeling  
(B) Not very much my feeling  
(C) Slightly my feeling  
(D) Pretty much my feeling  
(E) Definitely my feeling

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

Based on the distribution of responses, 91.4% of the pupils felt that English was useful for further studies (item 33 options D and E) while 5.5% felt it was not (options A and B), and 86.8% felt that the language was useful in getting a good job (item 35 options D and E)

while 6.3% felt it was not (options A and B). The result in item 33 was probably due to the pupils' realisation that although Malay was the medium of instruction at all educational levels, English was to a certain extent still useful in the tertiary institutions since most reference materials were written in English. The other reason was probably the awareness that places in the few tertiary institutions were limited and that many potential students had to go abroad for their educational pursuit. (Normally, some will study in Indonesia where Malay [i.e. *Bahasa Indonesia*] is the medium of instruction; but, for some socio-historical - and probably personal - reasons, many prefer to study in the English-speaking countries).

That many disagreed with items 34 and 36 was expected. Based on the choice of options A and B, 50.8% of them felt that a good knowledge of English was not necessary to merit social recognition (item 34) and 46.9% felt that it was not necessary for one to be fluent in English to be really educated (item 36). Possibly the pupils were aware that of late there were many prominent Malay-educated Malays in contrast to the colonial and early independent days when almost all of such people were English-educated. But, based on the choice of options D and E, the proportion of those who agreed is still encouraging, i.e. 30.8% and 31.8% respectively.

#### 4.5.1.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

The row total in Table 23 indicates that overall the pupils' degree of instrumental motivation was really very strong, rejecting the assumption that Malay-medium pupils are insufficiently strong in their instrumental motivation to learn English. The proportion of those in the strong group is 63.9%, in the moderate group 27.2%, and in the weak group just 8.8%.

TABLE 23: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION BY SCHOOL

INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Weak	17 (8.3%) 18.2 -1.2	22 (9.4%) 20.8 1.2	39 (8.8%)
Moderate	57 (27.7%) 56.1 0.9	63 (26.8%) 53.9 -0.9	120 (27.2%)
Strong	132 (64.1%) 131.7 0.3	150 (63.8%) 150.3 -0.3	282 (63.9%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
0.184	2	0.912	18.2	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.



The chi-square statistic in the above table is small and insignificant. Therefore, it can be concluded that the rural and urban pupils do not differ significantly in terms of instrumental motivation.

#### 4.5.2 Integrative Orientation of Motivation

##### 4.5.2.1 Analysis of Responses

Three items (nos. 37-39) were presented to the pupils aimed at measuring their degree of integrative motivation. The result of distribution of responses to the items is indicated in Table 24.

TABLE 24: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS  
ON INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

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ITEM:

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37 I am studying English so that one day I can visit an English-speaking country and make friends with the people there

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
12	29	84	170	146
(2.7%)	(6.6%)	(19.0%)	(38.5%)	(33.1%)

38 Knowing English will enable me to get good friends more easily among English-speaking people

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
19	50	78	193	101
(4.3%)	(11.3%)	(17.7%)	(43.8%)	(22.9%)

39 English will help me to understand better the English-speaking people and their way of life

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
16	38	60	199	128
(3.6%)	(8.6%)	(13.6%)	(45.1%)	(29.0%)

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- (A) Definitely not my feeling
- (B) Not very much my feeling
- (C) Slightly my feeling
- (D) Pretty much my feeling
- (E) Definitely my feeling

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

The proportions of pupils who agreed with the three items, based on the choice of options D and E, are 71.6%, 66.7% and 74.1% respectively as against 9.3%, 15.6% and 12.2% respectively, based on the choice of options A and B. Agreement with item 37 was, in some way, related to item 33 (Table 22) - an opportunity to visit and study in an English-speaking country to most people was a dream of

a lifetime achievable only by the lucky few.

#### 4.5.2.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

As indicated in Table 25, the degree of the pupils' integrative motivation was similarly very strong. From the row total, 69.4% of of the pupils were in the strong category, 24.5% in the moderate category, and 6.1% in the weak category. The assumption that Malay-medium pupils are insufficiently strong in their integrative motivation to learn English is therefore rejected.

TABLE 25: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION BY SCHOOL

INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Weak	14 (6.8%) 12.6 1.4	13 (5.5%) 14.4 -1.4	27 (6.1%)
Moderate	54 (26.2%) 50.4 3.6	54 (23.0%) 57.6 -3.6	108 (24.5%)
Strong	138 (67.0%) 142.9 -4.9	168 (71.5%) 163.1 4.9	306 (69.4%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
1.076	2	0.584	12.6	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

Based on the value of obtained chi-square statistic, there is no significant evidence for the difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of integrative motivation.

#### 4.5.3 Desire to Learn English

##### 4.5.3.1 Analysis of Responses

Altogether, there were six items (nos. 40-45) presented

to the pupils meant to measure their degree of desire to learn English. The result of distribution of responses to the items is illustrated in Table 26. For each individual item, the responses seem to concentrate heavily on options A and B, the proportions of all of which when combined are 78% and above.

TABLE 26: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON DESIRE TO LEARN ENGLISH

ITEM:	FREQUENCY:
40 When I have English homework to do, I:	
A Do it immediately when I start my homework	197 (44.7%)
B Put it off until all other homework is finished	223 (50.6%)
C Ignore it until I am reminded by the teacher	20 (4.5%)
D Ignore it entirely	1 (0.2%)
41 During English classes, I:	
A Become wholly absorbed in the subject matter	260 (59.0%)
B Have to force myself to keep listening to the teacher	132 (29.9%)
C Become bored	28 (6.3%)
D Have a tendency to daydream about other things	21 (4.8%)
42 If I had the opportunity and knew enough English, I would read English newspapers and magazines:	
A As often as I could	281 (63.7%)
B Fairly regularly	85 (19.3%)
C Probably not very often	63 (14.3%)
D Not at all	12 (2.7%)

43	If I had the opportunity to change the situation, I would:		
	A Increase the amount of time for English learning	303	(68.7%)
	B Keep the amount of time as it is	124	(28.1%)
	C Decrease the amount of time	12	(2.7%)
	D Eliminate the subject entirely	2	(0.5%)
44	I find English:		
	A Very interesting	120	(27.2%)
	B Interesting	224	(50.8%)
	C No more interesting than most subjects	92	(20.9%)
	D Not interesting at all	5	(1.1%)
45	In my English class, I am:		
	A Always prepared for the lesson having done my homework or read the material we are to cover	173	(39.2%)
	B Sometimes prepared	185	(42.0%)
	C Generally not prepared unless I know the teacher will ask for the homework	78	(17.7%)
	D Not prepared at all	5	(1.1%)

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TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

#### 4.5.3.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

The row total in Table 27 shows that as high as 80.3% of the pupils were in the strong group, decreasing greatly to 16.3% in the moderate group, and 3.4% in the weak group. Based on the results, the assumption that Malay-medium pupils are insufficiently strong in their desire to learn English is rejected.

TABLE 27: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON DESIRE TO LEARN ENGLISH BY SCHOOL

DESIRE TO LEARN:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Weak	4 (1.9%) 7.0 -3.0	11 (4.7%) 8.0 3.0	15 (3.4%)
Moderate	33 (16.0%) 33.6 -0.6	39 (16.6%) 38.4 0.6	72 (16.3%)
Strong	169 (82.0%) 165.4 3.6	185 (78.7%) 188.6 -3.6	354 (80.3%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
2.594	2	0.273	7.0	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

Based on the chi-square statistic, there is no significant evidence for a difference between the rural and urban pupils in their degree of desire to learn English.

#### 4.5.4 Motivational Intensity

##### 4.5.4.1 Analysis of Responses

Finally, there were six items (nos. 46-51) in the

questionnaire meant to measure the degree of the pupils' motivational intensity in learning English. The assumption was that the greater the effort one was willing to spend on studying, the greater the motivational intensity. The levels of intensity were measured by the options - option A indicated the highest level (strong) and C the lowest (weak). The result is presented in Table 28. For each item, the responses seem to concentrate heavily on options A and B, the proportions of which when combined are 69% and above. Nevertheless, the fact remains that it is difficult to measure motivational intensity which, like attitudes, is an abstraction and therefore has to be inferred (Corder 1973; Oppenheim 1966).

TABLE 28: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON MOTIVATIONAL INTENSITY

ITEM:	FREQUENCY:
46 If English were not taught in school, I would:	
A Try to obtain English lessons elsewhere	133 (30.2%)
B Pick up English in everyday situations (i.e. read English books and newspapers, try to speak it wherever possible, etc.)	264 (59.9%)
C Not bother to learn English at all	44 (10.0%)
47 I actively think about what I have learned in my English classes:	
A Very frequently	107 (24.3%)
B Once in a while	312 (70.7%)
C Hardly ever	22 (5.0%)



48	On the average, I spent about the following amount of time doing home study in English (include all English homework):	
	A Four hours or more a week	47 (10.7%)
	B More than one hour but less than four hours a week	260 (59.0%)
	C Less than one hour a week	134 (30.4%)
49	Considering how I study my English, I can honestly say that I:	
	A Really try to learn English	145 (32.9%)
	B Do just enough work to get along	201 (45.6%)
	C Will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work	95 (21.5%)
50	After I finish school, I will probably:	
	A Try to use my English as much as possible	128 (29.0%)
	B Continue to improve my English (e.g. daily practice, attending private classes, etc.)	289 (65.5%)
	C Make no attempt to remember the English I have learned	24 (5.4%)
51	Compared to my other school subjects, I:	
	A Work harder on English than any other subjects	24 (5.4%)
	B Do as much work in English as I do in any other subjects	288 (65.3%)
	C Do less work in English than any other subjects	129 (29.3%)

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TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

#### 4.5.4.2 Overall Distribution of Sample

The row total in Table 29 shows that 30.8% of the sample was in the strong group, 35.4% in the moderate group, and 33.8% in the weak group. The distribution indicates that the pupils' motivational intensity was generally strong, rejecting the assumption that Malay-medium pupils are

insufficiently strong in their motivational intensity to learn English.

TABLE 29: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON MOTIVATIONAL INTENSITY BY SCHOOL

MOTIVATIONAL INTENSITY:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Weak	65 (31.6%) 69.6 -4.6	84 (35.7%) 79.4 4.6	149 (33.8%)
Moderate	76 (36.9%) 72.9 3.1	80 (34.0%) 83.1 -3.1	156 (35.4%)
Strong	65 (31.6%) 63.5 1.5	71 (30.2%) 72.5 -1.5	136 (30.8%) 30.8
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
0.887	2	0.642	63.5	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

With a small and insignificant value of the chi-square statistic, there is therefore no significant difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of motivational intensity.

#### 4.5.5 Discussion

Based on the data presented in Tables 22 to 29, overall,

the pupils were very strong in their desire to learn, equally very strong in their instrumental and integrative motivations and strong in their motivational intensity. Therefore the assumption that Malay-medium pupils generally lack the motivation to learn English (Abraham 1979; Balaetham 1982; Doh & Siow 1979; Keong 1979; Rodgers 1979) is rejected. No doubt, as with attitudes, there is naturally a small group of learners who are less motivated to learn the language.

From the data in Tables 23 and 25, the pupils appeared to be very strong in their instrumental and integrative motivations. The proportions of those in the weak and moderate groups were just slightly lower and the proportion in the strong group was slightly higher in the row total of Table 25 than those in Table 23. Similarly the coefficients for TEST/SRP and INTGM in Table 30 are slightly higher than the coefficients for TEST/SRP and INSTM. A close examination of the correlation matrix indicates that though there are no significant correlations between TEST/SRP and INSTM and between TEST and INTGM, a positive and significant correlation is established between SRP and INTGM. All these suggest that integrative motivation is slightly more important than instrumental motivation.

Likewise, in the Universiti Pertanian Malaysia study (Vijchulata & Lee 1984), it was observed that integrative motivation was slightly stronger than instrumental motivation. Of the total possible score of 15, the mean score for integrative motivation was 13.8 (N=990); of the

total possible score of 20, the mean score for instrumental motivation was 13.3 (N=990). Based on the result, both authors concluded that overall the students appeared to be slightly more integratively than instrumentally motivated. Probably, the reason for the similarity in both findings was the awareness among learners that of late, although English was important, it was not anymore vital for job, educational and social purposes (but see responses to items 33 and 35 in Table 22 and discussion in Section 4.5.1.1). However, the difference between instrumental and integrative motivations in both studies was apparently too slight to be of any significance.

So, it comes as no surprise if in the Johor study (Chandrasegaran 1979) instrumental motivation was slightly more important since that was the situation of the day. Only 7% of the sample had integratively oriented motivation, 20.3% had instrumentally oriented motivation while 72.7% had motivation that was neither exclusively instrumental nor integrative in orientation. Clearly, from the result, integrative motivation was slightly less strong than instrumental motivation and the majority of Malay-medium pupils learned English with both instrumental and integrative motivations. Similarly, there appeared to be significant though slight correlations between competence and instrumental motivation and between competence and integrative motivation. The coefficients were 0.16 and 0.12 respectively, both significant at  $p < 0.05$ . But, with such

a slight difference (though in favour of instrumental motivation), Chandrasegaran concluded that instrumental and integrative motivations were equally important.

Studies conducted in other settings concerning the two types of motivation have also shown similar results. Gardner and Lambert had proven in their Montreal studies that the most successful learners were not necessarily the integratively motivated ones, but the instrumentally motivated ones as well. In the first study among 75 eleventh grade high school students (Gardner & Lambert 1959) and in the second study among 83 tenth graders (Gardner 1960) they found integrative motivation to be more strongly related to French achievement than instrumental motivation. Moreover, Gardner observed that integrative motivation was especially important in developing communication skills.

In other situations, Gardner and Lambert (1972) observed that integrative motivation appeared to be weaker. They investigated high school students learning French in three American communities in Maine, Connecticut and Louisiana. In a bicultural setting like Maine among 145 high school students, both instrumental and integrative motivations were not significantly related to proficiency in French. In another bicultural setting in Louisiana among a sample of 96 high school students, the relationships between both motivational orientations and proficiency were very weak. The third, in a unicultural setting in Connecticut among 142 high

school students who had no concentrated experience with French-Americans exclusively, the effect of integrative motivation was also very weak. Finally, in the Philippines study among 103 senior high school students, factor analysis demonstrated that instrumental motivation appeared to be a better predictor of overall English proficiency and at the same time showed a clear association between integrative motivation and aural-oral skills. However, correlation analysis failed to provide evidence of any significant associations between motivational orientations and the English grade. (Studies conducted by Gardner and Lambert in the Canadian, American and the Philippines settings will be discussed further in Chapter 5 Section 5.3.2).

However, Lukmani (1972) observed that, among a sample of 60 high school girls learning ESL, they were more highly motivated to learn English for instrumental than integrative reasons. A t-test on motivational orientations scores showed that instrumental motivation was found to rank significantly higher than integrative motivation ( $t=6.20$   $p<0.001$ ). To the author, this was due to the fact that the post-colonial Indian society, torn by a struggle between tradition and modernity (modernity in this case being represented by English) was determined to maintain its own identity and therefore the orientation towards English could only be instrumental.

That the pupils were very strong in their desire to learn as observed in the present study accords with the

finding of Vijchulata and Lee (1984). Of the total possible score of 28, the mean score that they observed was 22.1 (N=818), indicating that the students were generally very strong in their desire to learn English.

With reference to motivational intensity, as it is in the present study, Vijchulata and Lee observed that it was strong among the sample. Of the total possible score of 18, the mean score was 11.5 (N=1002). Correspondingly, in the Johor study, Chandrasegaran (1979) observed that motivational intensity among the pupils was also strong, with 37.7% of the pupils in the strong group, 52% in the moderate group, and 10.3% in the weak group. However, ignoring whatever slight differences exist in the degree of motivational intensity in all the studies, it appears that Malay-medium pupils are actually strong in their motivational intensity.

As an additional finding, the data in Tables 23, 25, 27 and 29 also indicated that there was no *significant* difference in instrumental and integrative motivations, desire to learn and motivational intensity between the rural and urban pupils. This is substantiated by the insignificant coefficients in Table 30 between INSTM and SCH, INTGM and SCH, DES and SCH, and between MINT and SCH. Similarly Chandrasegaran (*ibid.*), whose study was confined to motivational intensity, observed the lack of significant difference in being in rural or urban schools in terms of motivational intensity.

But, the Selangor study (Rajagopal 1976) indicated

that there was a significant difference in motivational intensity between the rural and urban pupils ( $t=3.114$ , 238 degrees of freedom,  $p < 0.001$ ). Again, it might be asked: Why is there a difference? Perhaps, the only possible answer, as given in Section 4.4.3, is due to the difference between the learning situation that existed as far back as 1976 and earlier and the situation thereafter. As was noted in the study concerned, there was also a significant difference in competence and attitudes between rural and urban pupils as there was in motivational intensity.

From the data presented in this chapter, it can be concluded that insofar as the pupils in the present study were concerned, they were weak in English and their contact with the TL was very low. However, regardless of the deficiencies, their attitudes were generally favourable, and their motivation seemed strong.



## CHAPTER FIVE: STATISTICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION (2)

The objective of this chapter is to find out about the strength of the relationships between competence and each of the independent variables, i.e. exposure, attitudes and motivation, presented in the order of the questions posed in Section 1.4 (Chapter 1). Encouragement from parents/teachers, sex, and family socioeconomic status will also be taken into account since it is believed that these extraneous variables, too, are related to competence and, therefore, to exposure, attitudes and motivation.

In determining the relationships, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed on the scores of the variables. Table 30 is a correlation matrix indicating the relationships between 18 of the variables under study. An examination of the matrix shows that the variables intercorrelate in the range of  $-0.085$  (ATS-FINC) to  $0.726$  (TEST-SRP).

In the discussions that follow, abbreviations will be used to refer to all the variables as provided in Table 30.

TABLE 30: INTER-VARIABLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

	TEST	SRP	ERM	ERT	ESE	ATL	ATS	INSTM	INTGM
TEST	1.000	.726 ***	.107 *	.122 **	.198 ***	.191 ***	.052	.012	.067
SRP		1.000	.183 ***	.156 ***	.264 ***	.208 ***	.072	.087	.123 **
ERM			1.000	.190 ***	.397 ***	.064	.063	.053	.055
ERT				1.000	.285 ***	.090	-.007	.014	.038
ESE					1.000	.187 ***	.034	.119 *	.073
ATL						1.000	.296 ***	.306 ***	.271 ***
ATS							1.000	.439 ***	.339 ***
INSTM								1.000	.438 ***
INTGM									1.000

	DES	MINT	ENCP	ENCT	SCH	SEX	NSIB	FINC	PEDUC
TEST	.104 *	.105 *	.011	.008	.151 ***	.052	.072	.242 ***	.184 ***
SRP	.219 ***	.192 ***	.041	.072	.174 ***	.176 ***	.067	.229 ***	.159 ***
ERM	.298 ***	.318 ***	.234 ***	.110 *	.033	.124 **	.040	.196 ***	.251 ***
ERT	.145 **	.149 **	.091	.166 ***	.053	.013	.012	.094 *	.069
ESE	.415 ***	.414 ***	.274 ***	.113 *	-.013	.251 ***	.013	.167 ***	.144 **
ATL	.249 ***	.207 ***	.055	.162 ***	-.010	.111 *	.024	.072	.012
ATS	.257 ***	.201 ***	.103 *	.116 *	-.029	-.056	-.046	-.085	.075
INSTM	.199 ***	.144 **	.032	.095 *	.027	.083	-.061	-.050	-.076

	DES	MINT	ENCP	ENCT	SCH	SEX	NSIB	FINC	PEDUC
INTGM	.236 ***	.148 **	.003	.101 *	.032	.058	.017	-.022	-.008
DES	1.000	.596 ***	.249 ***	.166 ***	-.064	.308 ***	-.019	.057	.044
MINT		1.000	.309 ***	.192 ***	-.003	.286 ***	-.023	.084	.058
ENCP			1.000	.135 **	.077	.029	.030	.163 ***	.156 ***
ENCT				1.000	.034	.155 ***	-.014	-.051	.014
SCH					1.000	-.063	.077	.178 ***	.183 ***
SEX						1.000	.033	.129 **	-.003
NSIB							1.000	.076	.031
FINC								1.000	.553 ***
PEDUC									1.000

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

\*\*\* Significant at 0.001

\*\* Significant at 0.01

\* Significant at 0.05

Abbreviations: TEST English language achievement test  
SRP Sijil Rendah Pelajaran English Grade  
ERM Exposure to written English  
ERT Exposure to radio and television English  
ESE Exposure to unscripted spoken English  
ATL Attitude towards English language  
ATS Attitude towards speakers of English  
INSTM Instrumental motivation  
INTGM Integrative motivation  
DES Desire to learn English  
MINT Motivational intensity  
ENCP Encouragement from parents  
ENCT Encouragement from teachers  
SCH School  
SEX Sex  
NSIB Number of siblings in the family  
FINC Family income  
PEDUC Parent level of education

## 5.1 ARE PUPILS HIGHLY EXPOSED TO ENGLISH COMPETENT IN THE LANGUAGE?

This question sets out to test the hypothesis that the higher the exposure to (a) written English, (b) radio and television English, and (c) unscripted spoken English that the pupils receive, the more competent they are in the language. The correlations between the variables yielded values of: (1)  $r=0.107$   $p<0.05$  on ERM and TEST and  $r=0.183$   $p<0.001$  on ERM and SRP; (2)  $r=0.122$   $p<0.01$  on ERT and TEST and  $r=0.156$   $p<0.001$  on ERT and SRP; and (3)  $r=0.198$   $p<0.001$  on ESE and TEST and  $r=0.264$   $p<0.001$  on ESE and SRP.

The low but positively significant correlations offer slight support for the hypothesis - pupils who received a higher degree of exposure to written English (as provided by reading materials such as books, magazines/periodicals and newspapers), radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English (through verbal interactions with family members and friends), were more competent in the language.

In terms of importance in relationship, ESE was ahead of the others since the coefficient established between this variable and TEST was highest when compared to those between ERM/ERT and TEST, and in fact, even when compared to those between all the attitudinal-motivational variables and TEST. Correspondingly, the coefficient established between ESE and SRP was highest

compared to those established between ERM/ERT as well as those of all other attitudinal-motivational variables and SRP. From the result, it can therefore be concluded that the relationships between ESE and TEST/SRP, though small, are definite; that those pupils who were highly exposed to spoken English were likely to be more competent in the language.

The low correlations established between ERM/ERT/ESE and TEST/SRP was probably due to the difference in the degrees of exposure and of competence among the pupils. In terms of exposure, the pupils were generally homogeneous, i.e. the majority received very low exposure to English. This was substantiated by the data in Tables 12 and 16 wherein between 80%-83% of the sample clustered in the low group and just below 3% in the high group. Whereas, in terms of competence, the pupils were generally heterogeneous. The data in Table 8 indicated that about 47% of the pupils obtained scores of 20 and less and about 8% scored 31 and above. Table 9 provided a similar picture; only about 22% failed and 3% obtained distinction. Accordingly, the low coefficients were the result of the pupils' homogeneity in terms of exposure and heterogeneity in terms of competence.

Table 14 was an exception. No doubt the pupils were heterogeneous in terms of exposure to radio and television English but, as discussed in Section 4.3.4, this was probably due to the entertaining nature of the media, more so in the case of television. Irrespective

of their varied range of ability in English and the nature of their environment (whether encouraging or otherwise), the pupils were more attracted to the screen than they were to reading materials in English as well as to using the language in speaking.

It was also noted that ERM, ERT and ESE intercorrelated positively and significantly with each other in the range of 0.190 to 0.397. The relationship established between ERM and ESE, yielding a value of  $r=0.397$   $p<0.001$ , was of significance. The moderate correlation suggested substantial relationship between the variables, meaning that pupils who were extensively exposed to reading materials in English were likely to be the ones who frequently used English in verbal interactions and vice versa. Probably, their environment encouraged the use of English, hence the tendency to read and speak more in English and, as a consequence of extensive exposure, they became more competent in the language.

#### 5.1.1 Extraneous Variables Related to Exposure

Extraneous variables here refer to such variables as sex (SEX), encouragement from parents (ENCP), encouragement from teachers (ENCT), and family socioeconomic status (NSIB, FINC, and PEDUC). The matrix indicated that ERM and ESE were positively and significantly related to SEX ( $r=0.124$   $p<0.01$  on ERM and SEX and  $r=0.251$   $p<0.001$  on ESE

and SEX). In spite of the low correlations, the results were sufficient to indicate that those who were highly exposed to written and unscripted spoken English were mostly girls.

ERM and ESE were also significantly related to two of the family socioeconomic variables, i.e. FINC and PEDUC. The correlations yielded values of: (1)  $r=0.196$   $p<0.001$  on ERM and FINC and  $r=0.251$   $p<0.001$  on ERM and PEDUC; and (2)  $r=0.167$   $p<0.001$  on ESE and FINC and  $r=0.144$   $p<0.01$  on ESE and PEDUC. The results demonstrated that, to a slight degree, pupils who were highly exposed to written and unscripted spoken English were those from families of higher income and higher education. Probably, pupils from families of higher socioeconomic status, of whom the home environment was encouraging towards the learning of English (based on the low but positively significant correlations between FINC/PEDUC and ENCP), received more opportunities of contact with the TL - both through the written and unscripted spoken forms.

In addition, there were positive and significant correlations between ERM/ESE and ENCP ( $r=0.234$   $p<0.001$  and  $r=0.274$   $p<0.001$  respectively). At the same time, there were also positive and significant correlations between ERM/ERT/ESE and ENCT ( $r=0.110$   $p<0.05$ ,  $r=0.166$   $p<0.001$  and  $r=0.113$   $p<0.05$  respectively). The coefficients were sufficient to indicate that those who were highly exposed to reading materials in English,

radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English were those who received sufficient encouragement from their parents and teachers.

Of the exposure variables, ERT seemed to be of no importance in relation to the extraneous variables (except for ENCT). Irrespective of sex and family socioeconomic status, everybody appeared to be equally exposed to radio and television English. Again, this was probably due to the entertaining nature of the media. The coefficient between ERT and FINC, i.e. 0.094  $p < 0.05$ , although significant and in favour of the higher income families, was so small in magnitude and therefore was of less importance. Many pupils listened to radio and many more watched television and so almost everybody, irrespective of family socioeconomic status, were equally exposed to radio and television English.

### 5.1.2 Discussion

The present study treats exposure to written English, exposure to radio and television English, and exposure to unscripted spoken English as three separate variables. The previous study by Chandrasegaran (1979) treated the three as a cluster of variables while those conducted in foreign settings concentrated more on interactional aspects of exposure. Therefore, whenever reference is made to the said studies for comparison, exposure will be treated as exposure in general without making any



distinction between the three variables.

The presence of a link between exposure and competence in the present study is compatible with the finding of Chandrasegaran (ibid.) wherein the coefficient was 0.352 significant at  $p < 0.01$ . Her finding showed that the urban sample performed better in English than the rural sample (with a small coefficient on school and competence, i.e.  $r = 0.095$ , yet significant at  $< 0.05$ ). At the same time, it was observed that the former received higher degree of exposure to English than the latter ( $r = 0.169$   $p < 0.01$  on exposure and school). Therefore, in the study, exposure was attributed as a factor contributing to competence. The urban pupils, being in an environment where the opportunity of contact with English was more readily available, became more competent in the language.

On the contrary, in the present study, the presence of associations between TEST/SRP and SCH was not followed by the presence of associations between ERM/ERT/ESE and SCH as indicated in the correlation matrix. That the urban pupils were more competent in English than the rural pupils was not an indication of their receiving higher degree of exposure to the TL (see Tables 8, 9, 12, 14, and 16).

Perhaps, as discussed in Section 4.3.4, the difference of the present-day English environment from that of the 1970s and earlier could explain the reason for the difference in Chandrasegaran's study and that of

the present study. It also could explain the reason for the high coefficient in Chandrasegaran's study as compared to the present study.

Studies conducted in settings outside Malaysia also illustrated the presence of an association between exposure and competence. In the Mexican study among 920 Native Mexican children, Briere (1978) observed a significant association between exposure to Spanish and competence in the language. The coefficients established between some of the variables measured, i.e.: (1) whether the father, (2) the mother, and (3) the siblings spoke Spanish or not, (4) residence of the sample in relation to a Spanish-speaking community, (5) the amount of attendance at school, and (6) whether there was a need for one or both parents to speak varying degrees of Spanish to travel to work, in their respective order, were: (a) with *comprension*, 0.62, 0.38, 0.32, 0.34, 0.59 and 0.52 respectively; and (b) with *otras* (i.e. listening comprehension, transformation drills, vocabulary and *morfosintaxis*), 0.51, 0.24, 0.29, 0.36, 0.64, and 0.43 respectively. The result indicated that children who received a higher degree of contact with the TL (through their family members, their attendance at schools and through speakers of Spanish in the vicinity of their residence) were more proficient in the language than those who did not. Therefore Briere concluded that exposure had a statistically significant effect on

Spanish test scores.

In a longitudinal study among six ESL students in the New York setting (Seliger 1977) the coefficient established between interaction in class and structure test was 0.929, between the former and aural comprehension test 0.829, and between the former and cloze test 0.714. This means that the high input generators (those involved substantially in interaction) performed better in the TL than the low input generators (those involved less in interaction), leading the author to the conclusion that exposure, i.e. interaction, was a determining variable in L2 acquisition.

Hamayan et al. (1977), using the procedure of regression analysis, observed among 127 learners of French as an L2 that - for *Test de Rendement en Francais*, *Test de Lecture*, and oral production test - the early immersion group performed better than the late immersion group and that both these groups performed better than the English control group. Frequency of French spoken to strangers and shyness appeared to be important predictors of success in *Test de Rendement*; in *Test de Lecture* it was shyness; and in the oral production test the high frequency of use of French and less English. Therefore, regardless of the nature of French programmes, the more the learners practised speaking French and the less shy they were, the better they performed in French. However,

the overall regression effect for the listening comprehension test was not significant and therefore no conclusion was drawn from the result.

In another longitudinal study using observational techniques over a course of one year among 11 children (with their age ranging from 42 to 53 months) in two bilingual programmes (Chesterfield et al. 1983), it was found that exposure to the TL was related to proficiency. In the first setting at Corpus Christi (among a sample of six children), the number of Spanish-preferring children (exclusive of the sample) were lower than English-preferring children. In the Milwaukee setting (among a sample of five children) there were more Spanish-preferring children than English-preferring (exclusive of the sample). During the first observation, English was therefore dominant in the first setting (average MLU, i.e., mean length of utterance=2.4). In the second setting, due to the linguistic composition of the classes, Spanish was dominant (average MLU=0). The third and final observation made at the end of the year showed that English proficiency among the children increased greatly with the Corpus Christi children (as a result of having started the year with some proficiency in English) progressing ahead of their Milwaukee counterparts (MLU=4.7 as against MLU=3.0). But, there was a difference as to the resources of proficiency between the two settings. In Corpus Christi where English-preferring children predominated, the peers were the main resource

of proficiency while in Milwaukee, where Spanish-preferring children predominated, the teacher was the main resource of proficiency.

Based on the research findings outlined above, it is apparent that exposure is important in attaining proficiency in the TL. Exposure provides the learner opportunities to make communicative use of the TL which is considered as the most effective means of learning the language (Spolsky 1969). And that the lower the degree of exposure - often the result of changes in language situation - the lower will be the level of proficiency (Alisjahbana 1974; Cheong 1983; Dakin 1968; Fasold 1984; Lieberman 1972; Omar 1982; Tiffen 1968).

## 5.2 ARE PUPILS WITH FAVOURABLE ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH COMPETENT IN THE LANGUAGE?

The above question attempts to test the hypothesis that the more favourable the pupils' attitudes are (a) towards the TL and (b) towards the TL speakers, the more competent they are in the language. The correlation analysis yielded the following values: (1)  $r=0.191$   $p<0.001$  on ATL and TEST and  $r=0.208$   $p<0.001$  on ATL and SRP; and (2)  $r=0.052$   $p>0.05$  (insignificant) on ATS and TEST and  $r=0.072$   $p>0.05$  (insignificant) on ATS and SRP.

The slight but positively significant correlations in (1) offer slight support for the hypothesis - that pupils whose attitudes were more favourable towards the

TL tended to be more competent in the language. But, neither of the two coefficients in (2), being insignificant, offer support for the hypothesis.

Of the two attitudinal variables, therefore, ATL seemed to be more important in relation to competence since its coefficients with TEST and SRP were significant. The slight correlations suggested definite relationships between the variables. On the contrary, the pupils' attitude towards the TL speakers obviously did not affect proficiency.

An examination of the crosstabulation in Table 18 showed that as high as 89% of the total sample clustered in the positive group, about 11% in the moderate group, and none in the negative group. Therefore, the pupils were highly homogeneous in their attitude towards the TL, i.e. very favourable. Probably, it was this homogeneity that accounted for the low coefficients between ATL and TEST/SRP.

However, the case for ATS was different. The crosstabulation in Table 20 showed that the pupils were heterogeneous in their attitude towards the TL speakers. Yet, in spite of their heterogeneity in terms of competence, the coefficients established between ATS and TEST/SRP were still very much lower. The only explanation for this was probably that, as far as the sample data were concerned, attitude towards the TL speakers was simply not important in relation to competence. The pupils might be poorly or highly

proficient in English but it did not follow that their attitude towards the TL speakers was highly negative or positive.

The correlation matrix also demonstrated that ATL and ATS intercorrelated positively and significantly with each other with the value of  $r=0.296$   $p<0.001$ . The coefficient suggested definite relationship between the two variables - pupils who were favourable in their attitude towards the TL were also favourable in their attitude towards the TL speakers, but that the presence of significant relationships between ATL and TEST/SRP was not followed by the presence of similar relationships between ATS and TEST/SRP.

#### 5.2.1 Extraneous Variables Related to Attitudes

It was observed that ATL correlated positively and significantly with SEX ( $r=0.111$   $p<0.05$ ) and with ENCT ( $r=0.162$   $p0.001$ ). The results indicated that, to a slight degree, those with positive attitude towards the TL were mostly girls and, at the same time, were those who perceived their teachers as encouraging. Incidentally, SEX correlated positively and significantly with ENCT and, accordingly, there existed intercorrelations between these three variables.

ATS, on the other hand, correlated with ENCP ( $r=0.103$   $p<0.05$ ) and ENCT ( $r=0.116$   $p<0.05$ ). The slight but positively significant correlations suggested that

pupils with favourable attitude towards the TL speakers were those who perceived their parents and teachers as encouraging. Again, incidentally, ENCP and ENCT correlated positively and significantly with each other and, therefore, there existed intercorrelations between the three variables.

However, between the variables, the ATL-ATS-ENCT interrelationships are of significance. Though the correlations were slight, they were sufficient to suggest that teachers' encouragement did influence the pupils' attitudes towards the TL and its speakers. Moreover, the lack of significant correlation between ENCT and SCH suggested that teachers, both from the rural and urban schools, equally encouraged their pupils to learn English. Probably, the awareness among teachers themselves as to the importance of English contributed to these intercorrelations.

### 5.2.2 Discussion

In the present study, attitude towards the TL and attitude towards the TL speakers are treated as two separate variables. Unlike the previous studies conducted in foreign settings, the studies by Chandrasegaran (1979) and Rajagopal (1976) treated the two as a cluster of variables and, therefore, when reference is made to their studies for comparison,



attitudes will be referred to as attitudes in general without making any distinction between the two attitude variables.

The link between attitudes and competence was observed by Chandrasegaran in the Johor study; a significant correlation was established between competence and attitudes (i.e.  $r=0.104$   $p<0.05$ ). It seemed that favourable attitudes were accompanied by a higher level of competence in speaking English and extra effort to work in the language. The coefficient was slightly lower than those between ATL and TEST/LCE in the present study probably because, by treating exposure as a single entity, the coefficient was suppressed. At the same time, it was also observed in Chandrasegaran's study that there was no significant relationship between attitudes and school.

The presence of associations between ATL and TEST/SRP only suggested that pupils with favourable attitude towards the TL tended to do better in English. That the urban pupils were more competent than the rural pupils did not necessarily mean their attitude towards the TL was also more favourable. As with exposure, the matrix illustrated the lack of any significant relationship between ATL and SCH. This was substantiated by the data in Table 18 which illustrated the lack of any significant difference between the two groups in terms of attitude towards the TL. The same applied to attitude towards the TL speakers (see Table 20). The finding

therefore accords with that of Chandrasegaran.

Likewise, Rajagopal observed that, based on the value of t statistic (i.e. 8.514 with 165 degrees of freedom significant at  $p < 0.01$ ) for the difference in mean scores of language achievement test between pupils with positive attitudes and those with negative attitudes, the former performed significantly better in the language than the latter. Those with positive attitudes tended to be those who did well in examinations. On the contrary, those with negative attitudes were those who experienced difficulties in the language and such difficulties seemed to have affected their attitudes. Although the statistical technique used (i.e. t-test) was meant to determine the difference in mean scores between the two groups, still the result could be taken to indirectly imply the presence of an association between attitudes and competence.

In contrast, Pierson et al. (1980), using the procedure of regression analysis, observed in a study on attitude towards the TL among 466 secondary pupils in Hong Kong that their cloze scores tended to be higher the more they agreed with the statements that they should not be forced to learn English, that English should not be one of the media of instruction in school, and the more they felt uneasy and insecure when speaking English. On the other hand, their cloze scores tended to be lower the more they agreed that if they used English they would be

praised and approved of by their families, relatives and friends, and the more they felt that English was the mark of an educated person.

Thus, in the Hong Kong case, learners with negative attitude towards the TL performed better in the language while those with positive attitude performed badly. This was probably due to the sociolinguistic situation in Hong Kong itself wherein, in spite of the high degree of exposure to English, there was uncertainty among learners between wanting to use and speak better English while at the same time maintaining their Chinese identity in a Chinese society. This situation was contradictory to that of the present study wherein exposure to English was very low while attitudes among learners were favourable and their motivation strong. This might explain the reason for the difference between both findings although the sample in the Hong Kong study was similar in character to that of the present study - culturally homogeneous learners of ESL who had little or no personal contact with Westerners.

The lack of significant associations between ATS and TEST/LCE showed that the pupils' attitude towards the TL speakers was not as important as attitude towards the TL. Hence, the hypothesis that there is a relationship between competence and attitude towards the TL speakers was rejected (see Section 5.2). As observed in Tables 18 and 20, overall, their attitude towards the TL speakers was not as strong as their attitude towards the TL

itself.

The finding therefore accords with those observed in several studies by Gardner and his associates. In one Montreal study (Gardner & Lambert 1959), a low and insignificant coefficient was established between attitude (towards French-Canadians) and French achievement ratings. In another Montreal study (Gardner 1960) among 90 English-speaking high school students of French as an L2, the coefficient between attitude (also towards French-Canadians) and aural comprehension was  $0.23$   $p < 0.05$ , but between the former and grammar as well as vocabulary the coefficients were low and insignificant. Yet, in another study (Lambert 1963) among 192 students attending the McGill French Summer School, the coefficient established between attitude (towards French people) and achievement was positive and significant ( $r = 0.23$   $p < 0.05$ ). However, the sample involved differed from those of previous studies in two respects: (1) the students were older than those of previous studies and (2) they were involved in an intensive six-week language training programme involving their active participation in the L2 for the greater part of the day. Probably, these differences contributed to the contradiction of previous findings.

In the three American studies in Louisiana, Maine and Connecticut, it seemed that attitude towards French-Americans had no effect on proficiency in French even though students with ethnocentric attitudes seemed to

perform badly in French (Gardner & Lambert 1972). In the Philippines study, again, the link between attitude towards the TL speakers and achievement appeared to be weak (ibid.).

Oller et al. (1977a) in a study among 44 Chinese graduate students studying in the United States, using the procedure of regression analysis, however, observed that attitude towards the TL speakers was positively related to scores on an English proficiency test - the more favourable the learners' attitude was towards Americans (defined by attributes such as helpful, sincere, kind, reasonable, friendly and successful), the better they performed. The reason for this, according to the authors, was that the students were present in the United States by choice in pursuit of higher education, and were therefore motivated to learn English. Furthermore, they were learning English in the natural situation wherein a certain degree of pressure to learn the TL was present.

But in another study by Oller et al. (1977b) among 60 Mexican American learners of ESL, a contradictory result was observed. The more proficient the subjects were in ESL the lower they rated Americans ( $r=-0.27$   $p<0.05$ ). To the authors, the contrast between the two populations might be due to the marked differences in their degree of integrativeness towards American people. 'Whereas the Chinese subjects were apparently instrumentally motivated to learn ESL in order to enjoy

certain material benefits, they were not particularly negative toward American people. By contrast, the Mexican-Americans...appeared to be anti-integrative, to have instrumental orientation toward Anglo-American culture' (ibid. 182).

Similarly, Chihara and Oller (1978), studying the attitudes of 123 adult Japanese speakers of EFL in Japan, observed that the more proficient learners tended to have negative attitude towards the TL speakers (defined by the scales 'confident' and 'broad-minded' as a cluster correlated at  $-0.27$   $p < 0.01$  and by the scales 'modest' and 'shy' correlated at  $-0.27$   $p < 0.01$ ). This again contradicted the finding of Oller et al. (1977a) but was in accordance with the finding by Oller et al. (1977b) above. Perhaps, the contrast in the patterns of relationship between attitude and competence in this study and that of Oller et al. (1977a) might be due to the differences between a second language context and a foreign language context of learning (Alptekin 1981).

The result of the present study, as confirmed by the findings of others, illustrated that the pupils' attitude toward the TL did affect proficiency in the sense that pupils with favourable attitude performed better in the language. But, insofar as attitude towards the TL speakers was concerned, available evidence seemed to be inconsistent from one setting to another. In the present research, attitude towards the TL speakers did not affect proficiency. Some studies conducted in other settings

produced positive results (i.e. the more favourable the learners' attitude was towards the TL speakers the better they performed) while some other studies produced negative results.

### 5.3 ARE PUPILS STRONGLY MOTIVATED TO LEARN ENGLISH COMPETENT IN THE LANGUAGE?

The last question in this chapter sets out to test the hypothesis that the stronger the pupils' (a) instrumental motivation, (b) integrative motivation, (c) desire to learn, and (d) motivational intensity, the more competent they are in English. The correlations between the variables yielded the following values: (1)  $r=0.012$   $p>0.05$  (insignificant) on INSTM and TEST and  $r=0.087$   $p>0.05$  (insignificant) on INSTM and SRP; (2)  $r=0.067$   $p>0.05$  (insignificant) on INTGM and TEST and  $r=0.123$   $p<0.01$  on INTGM and SRP; (3)  $r=0.104$   $p<0.05$  on DES and TEST and  $r=0.219$   $p<0.001$  on DES and SRP; and (4)  $r=0.105$   $p<0.05$  on MINT and TEST and  $r=0.192$   $p<0.001$  on MINT and SRP.

The insignificant correlations between INSTM and TEST/SRP indicated that this variable (INSTM) was not at all important in relation to competence and therefore, here, does not offer support for the hypothesis. Thus, as far as the sample data were concerned, instrumental motivation could not be used as an effective predictor of achievement. On the other hand, although INTGM

correlated positively and significantly only with SRP (and not with TEST), the correlation was sufficient to offer a slight support for the hypothesis. The results therefore suggested that integrative motivation was slightly more important among the pupils than instrumental motivation in relation to competence (as was discussed at some length in Section 4.5.5).

Nevertheless, the correlations in (3) and (4) were all positive and significant, slightly offering support for the hypothesis - that pupils with stronger desire and motivational intensity were more competent in English. Therefore, among all the motivational variables under study, DES and MINT were important, at least slightly, in relation to competence.

Finally, the matrix indicated that INSTM, INTGM, DES and MINT intercorrelated positively and significantly in the range of 0.144 to 0.596. The coefficients suggested that the pupils who were stronger in one motivational variable were also stronger in other motivational variables and vice versa.

### 5.3.1 Extraneous Variables Related to Motivation

As seen in the correlation matrix, ENCT correlated with all the motivational variables in the range of 0.095 to 0.192. The correlations were slight but sufficient to suggest the importance of teachers' encouragement in affecting the pupils' motivation to learn (as it was with



attitudes discussed in Section 5.2.1). This might be due to the awareness among teachers - both in the rural and urban schools - of the importance of English in Malaysia.

There were also significant relationships between ENCP and DES/MINT ( $r=0.249$   $p<0.001$  and  $r=0.309$   $p<0.001$  respectively). The correlations were low but sufficient to indicate the importance of parental encouragement in affecting the pupils' desire and motivational intensity. It was also noted that those parents who were perceived by the pupils as more encouraging were those from the higher socioeconomic status (as indicated by the significant correlations between ENCP and FINC/PEDUC).

Finally, there were positive and significant correlations between SEX and DES/MINT, yielding values of  $r=0.308$   $p<0.001$  on DES and SEX and  $r=0.286$   $p<0.001$  on MINT and SEX. The correlations were also low but sufficient to indicate definite relationships between the variables - that the ones with stronger desire and motivational intensity to learn English were mostly girls.

### 5.3.2 Discussion

The presence of an association between competence and motivation as observed in the present study was also confirmed in the Selangor (Rajagopal 1976) and Johor (Chandrasegaran 1979) studies. In the Selangor study, the difference in mean scores ( $t=5.471$  with 170 degrees

of freedom at  $p < 0.01$ ) of English achievement test between pupils who were more motivated and those who were less motivated led Rajagopal to the conclusion that the former performed better in the language than the latter. The highly motivated pupils were those who regarded the TL as an interesting subject in school and easier to learn. They were also the ones who put more effort into doing their English homework, read more English books, and listened more to English radio programmes. As it was with attitudes, the  $t$  value could also be taken to indirectly indicate the presence of an association between motivation and competence.

Likewise, in the Johor study, Chandrasegaran observed that the correlation between motivational intensity and competence was significant ( $r=0.308$   $p<0.01$ ). And, while the present study failed to observe a significant association between instrumental motivation and competence, Chandrasegaran managed to observe it ( $r=0.160$   $p<0.05$ ). The reason might lie in the difference of English language environment in the country between that of the 1970s (and earlier) and the present one (see Sections 4.1.1 and 4.3.4). Consequently, this might have led the pupils in the present study to perceive the diminishing importance of English for job, educational and social purposes (see Section 4.5.5). Finally, in accordance with the present study, the relationship between integrative motivation and competence in the Johor study was also observed to be statistically

significant ( $r=0.121$   $p<0.05$ ).

Another similarity between this study and that of Chandrasegaran is the lack of significant relationship between motivational variables and schools. Table 30 illustrated the lack of significant relationships between INSTM/INTGM/DES/MINT and SCH although TEST/SRP were significantly related to the latter. This means that even though the urban pupils were more competent in English than the rural pupils, it did not follow that the urban pupils were also stronger in their motivation to learn English.

The observed link between motivation and competence in this study also accords with the findings of Gardner and Lambert. In the Montreal study (Gardner & Lambert 1959) they observed the significant correlation between orientation index (integrative over instrumental) and achievement ratings ( $0.34$   $p<0.01$ ), meaning that the integratively oriented students were more competent in French than the instrumentally oriented ones, and between motivational intensity and competence ( $0.40$   $p<0.01$ ). In another study (Gardner 1960), the coefficients between orientation index (integrative over instrumental) and aural comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary were  $0.36$ ,  $0.40$ , and  $0.31$  respectively, between desire to learn and aural comprehension, grammar, vocabulary  $0.34$ ,  $0.39$ , and  $0.37$  respectively, and between motivational intensity and grammar and between the former and vocabulary  $0.30$ , and  $0.38$  respectively (all significant at  $p0.01$ ). Still, in

another study (Lambert et al. 1963), the coefficient established between orientation index (integrative over instrumental) was 0.25 significant at  $p < 0.05$ . From the results, the authors concluded that motivation was important for the successful acquisition of L2.

In the Quebec study (Gardner et al. 1979) among a sample of 89 Canadian and 65 American adult students in an intensive French language programme, the result of factor analysis demonstrated an association between French oral proficiency and integrative orientation but not with other attitudinal-motivational variables. Even this applied only to the Canadian and not to the American students. The authors attributed this difference to the difference in age and length of French study. The majority of the Canadian students were 17 or less in terms of age, and had five or more years of prior training in French than the American students. Since the French community was part of the social context of the Canadian scene, the Canadian subjects entered the programme with positive attitudes for purposes of integrating with the TL community and thus were more successful in developing oral skills in French. Probably, older students who had less prior contact with the French language and its speakers, such as the American students, were less integratively motivated than the Canadian students.

In the Louisiana study, motivational intensity and desire to learn were associated with a high level of achievement in French ( $r = 0.25$   $p < 0.01$  on motivational

intensity and French grade and  $r=0.40$   $p<0.01$  on desire to learn and French grade). In the Maine study, students with strong motivational intensity and desire to learn performed better in the language ( $r=0.38$   $p0.01$  on motivational intensity and French grade and  $r=0.40$   $p0.01$  on desire to learn and French grade). Similarly, in the Connecticut study, both variables were significantly related to achievement ( $r=0.43$   $p0.01$  on motivational intensity and French grade and  $r=0.39$   $p0.01$  on desire to learn and French grade). And finally, in the Philippines study, learners with strong motivational intensity performed better in English ( $r=0.24$   $p0.05$  on motivational intensity and English grade). Again, it was concluded that motivation did affect proficiency in the TL (Gardner & Lambert 1972).

In this research, INTGM was slightly more important than INSTM and the former was significantly related to SRP. In the Canadian studies integrative motivation was also found to be more powerful than instrumental motivation. But, observations in later studies seemed to be contradictory. In all the American and Philippines studies, for example, the relationships between motivational orientations and proficiency were very weak and insignificant (Gardner & Lambert 1972). These findings were, however, in accordance with those of Hansen (1981) and Strong (1984).

The research by Lukmani (1972), on the other hand, demonstrated that instrumental motivation was stronger

than integrative motivation and that both motivational orientations correlated significantly with cloze test scores ( $r=0.411$   $p<0.001$  and  $r=0.257$   $p<0.05$  respectively). This means that, among the non-Westernized section of Bombay society, instrumental motivation tended to be more important.

The inconsistency led Alptekin (1981) to the conclusion that the thesis formulated by Gardner and Lambert that integrative motivation was more important than instrumental motivation rested on low correlations. Irrespective of the learner's orientations, a language can be learned well as long as there is a sense of immediacy to learn.

#### 5.4 INTER-VARIABLE CORRELATIONS: EXPOSURE, ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION

An examination of the matrix showed the presence of interrelationships between exposure, attitudes and motivation, each as a cluster of variables. Among the exposure variables, ERM correlated positively and significantly with DES ( $r=0.298$   $p<0.001$ ) and MINT ( $r=0.318$   $p<0.001$ ). ERT correlates positively and significantly with DES ( $r=0.145$   $p<0.01$ ) and MINT ( $r=0.149$   $p<0.01$ ). The correlations indicated that pupils who were highly exposed to written English and radio and television English were more likely to be strong in their desire and motivational intensity to learn English. It

seemed that ERM and ERT were not related to the other two motivational variables and all of the attitudinal variables.

The third exposure variable, i.e. ESE, correlated positively and significantly with ATL ( $r=0.187$   $p<0.001$ ), INSTM ( $r=0.119$   $p<0.05$ ), DES ( $r=0.415$   $p<0.001$ ) and MINT ( $r=0.414$   $p<0.001$ ). The correlations indicated that those who were highly exposed to unscripted spoken English were likely to have a favourable attitude towards the TL, and strong instrumental motivation, desire to learn and motivational intensity. However, ESE seemed to have no significant relationships with ATS and INTGM.

Both the attitudinal variables appeared to be related, in varying degrees, to all the motivational variables. ATL correlated positively and significantly with INSTM ( $r=0.306$   $p<0.001$ ), INTGM ( $r=0.271$   $p<0.001$ ), DES ( $r=0.249$   $p<0.001$ ), and MINT ( $r=0.207$   $p<0.001$ ). ATS also correlated positively and significantly with INSTM ( $r=0.439$   $p<0.001$ ), INTGM ( $r=0.339$   $p<0.001$ ), DES ( $r=0.257$   $p<0.001$ ) and MINT ( $r=0.201$   $p<0.001$ ). The results suggested that those with favourable attitudes towards the TL and its speakers were likely to be more instrumentally and integratively motivated, and having stronger desire and motivational intensity, in learning English.

## 5.5 EXTRANEOUS VARIABLES RELATED TO COMPETENCE

### 5.5.1 Are Pupils Who Perceive Their Parents and Teachers as Encouraging Competent in English?

There were two items included in the questionnaire (items 52 and 53) meant to find out the pupils' perception of the degree of encouragement from parents and teachers. As shown in the row total of Table 31 only 20.9% of the pupils perceived their parents as 'always' encouraging and 57.8% 'sometimes' encouraging. That as high as 21.3% perceived their parents as 'never' encouraging was of no surprise because parents - either rural or urban - from a working class background (from which most of the pupils were sampled) were completely divorced from the English environment and did not perceive the need for English at all.

In comparison, the row total in Table 32 shows that 82.1% of them perceived their teachers as 'always' encouraging and 15.6% 'sometimes' encouraging. This indicated that most teachers, both from the rural and urban schools, recognised the importance of English as an L2 and therefore encouraged their pupils to learn it.

The coefficients in Table 30 showed that there were no significant correlations between ENCP and TEST/SRP and between ENCT and TEST/SRP. Therefore, as far as the



sample data were concerned, there was no indication to say that encouragements from parents and teachers were related to competence.

However, it is generally believed that pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn are in some way related to encouragement from significant people like parents and teachers. As discussed in Sections 2.2.2, 5.2.1 and 5.3.1, this holds true for language learning (Chesterfield et al 1983; Feenstra & Gardner 1968; Gardner & Lambert 1972; Jones 1949; Spolsky 1969; Tucker & Lambert 1973; Vijchulata & Lee 1984; Wilkins 1972).

TABLE 31: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON ENCOURAGEMENT FROM PARENTS BY SCHOOL

ENCOURAGEMENT:	FREQUENCY	URBAN:	ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:		
Never	46 (22.3%) 43.9 2.1	48 (20.4%) 50.1 -2.1	94 (21.3%)
Sometimes	126 (61.2%) 119.1 6.9	129 (54.9%) 135.9 -6.9	255 (57.8%)
Always	34 (16.5%) 43.0 -9.0	58 (24.7%) 49.0 9.0	92 (20.9%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
4.451	2	0.108	42.975	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

TABLE 32: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON ENCOURAGEMENT FROM TEACHERS BY SCHOOL

ENCOURAGEMENT:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Never	6 (2.9%) 4.7 1.3	4 (1.7%) 5.3 -1.3	10 (2.3%)
Sometimes	33 (16.0%) 32.2 0.8	36 (15.3%) 36.8 -0.8	69 (15.6%)
Always	167 (81.1%) 169.1 -2.1	195 (83.0%) 192.9 2.1	362 (82.1%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <5:
0.793	2	0.673	4.671	1 of 6 (16.7%)

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

### 5.5.2 Is Sex Related to Competence?

As shown in Table 30, the relationship between SEX and SRP was positive and significant ( $r=0.176$   $p<0.001$ ). Though the correlation was slight and only related to SRP (and not TEST), it was sufficient to indicate that the girls fared better in English than the boys.

Likewise, in the Louisiana study, Gardner & Lambert (1972) also observed a link between sex and competence (between the former and listening comprehension Part 3

$r=0.23$   $p<0.05$ , between the former and listening comprehension Part 4  $r=0.23$   $p<0.05$ , and between the former and vocabulary  $r=0.30$   $p<0.01$ ). In the Connecticut study, they also observed the same result (between the former and listening comprehension Part 1  $r=0.19$   $p<0.05$ , between the former and French grade  $r=0.21$   $p<0.01$ ).

Actually, sex has for a long time been considered an important variable in influencing L2 performance (Hock 1973). Girls are believed to be superior to boys in verbal skills. The girls' superiority in language matters is ascribed to their earlier maturation in verbal learning. Yet, there have also been studies in which no such difference between sexes was reported (Briere 1978).

### 5.5.3 Is Family Socioeconomic Status Related to Competence?

The correlation matrix (Table 30) indicated that significant correlations were established between FINC and TEST/SRP ( $r=0.242$   $P<0.001$  and  $r=0.229$   $P<0.001$  respectively) and between PEDUC and TEST/SRP ( $r=0.184$   $P<0.001$  and  $r=0.159$   $p0.001$  respectively). Here, the correlations provide a positive answer to the question - that pupils from higher socioeconomic status were likely to be more competent in English than those from lower socioeconomic status.

Similarly, in the Bullock Report, it was observed that children with parents in professional or managerial

jobs performed better in English than children with parents in semi-skilled or unskilled jobs (Department of Education & Science 1976). Of course, this is not a valid comparison to be made - the report made reference to L1 learners in the L1 context whereas this study made reference to L2 learners in the L2 context. But, the issue here is the home environment in which a child grows up - for a child from a higher social class the environment is more favourable and this enhances language learning. This also refers to overall academic achievement which has long been observed by researchers (Banks 1971; Ahmad 1979). As pointed out by Rossi:

'...the higher the occupation of the breadwinner in the student's family, the greater his level of achievement' (Rossi 1965: 269).

This is also reiterated in the Third Malaysia Plan:

'Data in household income and educational attainment show that there is a close association between poverty and educational attainment' (*Third Malaysia Plan 1976*: 397).

#### 5.5.4 Family Socioeconomic Status: Its Significance in Relation to Competence and School

The data in Tables 33 and 34 illustrate the difference between the rural and urban pupils in terms of family socioeconomic status. In Table 33, the residuals from the first to the fourth rows in the urban cells are all

positive and in the rural cells negative, meaning that more urban parents and less rural parents than expected received a monthly income of over M\$300.00. Conversely, in the bottom row the urban residual is negative and the rural positive; both are very much larger than zero (i.e. 20.4 and -20.4). This means far less urban parents and far more rural parents than expected received a monthly income of M\$300.00 and below. The obtained chi-square statistic is large, i.e. 17.618, with 4 degrees of freedom, significant at  $p < 0.01$ . It can therefore be concluded that the urban pupils were better off than the rural pupils in terms of parental income.

In Table 34, a similar pattern is observed. Based on the residuals from the first to the fourth rows, more urban parents and less rural parents than expected received secondary and tertiary education. The residuals in the bottom row indicate that less urban parents and more rural parents than expected received elementary education. Similarly, the chi-square statistic is large, i.e. 17.083, with 4 degrees of freedom, significant at  $p < 0.01$ . Thus, it can be concluded that the parents of urban pupils were better educated than those of rural pupils. Since only 20% of the expected frequencies (i.e. the two in the top cells) are  $< 5$  and none  $< 1$  (in fact, both are close to 5), the chi-square test can therefore be used with confidence (see section 4.3.1.2).

So far, it was observed that the urban pupils were superior to the rural pupils in terms of competence

(Tables 8 and 9) and family socioeconomic status (Tables 33 and 34). Similarly, there were significant intercorrelations between TEST/SRP, FINC/PEDUC, and SCH (see Table 30), suggesting that those who were more competent in English were from the higher socioeconomic status and from the urban schools. Very likely, apart from the difference in quality of instruction between the rural and urban schools (as discussed in Section 4.2.1), the difference in socioeconomic status could also account for the difference in competence between the two groups of pupils, if exposure, attitudes, and motivation could not (since these variables were not significantly related to SCH). Herein lies the importance of family socioeconomic status as compared to other independent variables under study.

Therefore, the present finding is not in agreement with that of Chandrasegaran (1979). She rejected the factor of socioeconomic status as attributable to the difference in competence between the rural and urban pupils because about 90% of her sample - both rural and urban - came from working class families. This was no doubt the situation of the day because Malay-medium education was inexpensive and was therefore favoured by the Malay peasants. In contrast, English education was only accessible to the financially able or the educated urban middle and upper class parents. (The academically promising Malay children who were selected from all walks of life and were awarded education grants was an

exception).

With the change in the medium of instruction, most parents are not anymore concerned which school to send their children to but to send them to the nearest possible school. And this has resulted in the pattern of distribution as seen in Tables 33 and 34. The row totals indicate that about 84.4% of parents received a monthly income of \$550 or lower (a rough estimate of maximum income for working class parents) and about 85.9% of parents received lower secondary/elementary education (a rough estimate of the highest level of education for working class parents). Still, the difference in the patterns of distribution between the rural and urban groups is statistically significant.

Finally, it seemed that NSIB was the only variable that was not in any way significantly correlated with competence and with all other independent variables (Table 30). Clearly, number of siblings in the family was not an important family socioeconomic variable as a predictor of competence. The reason for the lack of significant association between NSIB and TEST/SRP is simple - the pupils, both rural and urban, were homogeneous in terms of the number of siblings in their family, i.e. large (see Table 35). This is typical of Malay families (and Asians in general) although the current trend among some educated parents is to have small families.

TABLE 33: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON FAMILY INCOME BY SCHOOL

INCOME:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
\$1051 and above	4 (1.9%) 7.9 -3.9	13 (5.5%) 9.1 3.9	17 (3.9%)
\$801 - \$1050	8 (3.9%) 9.3 -1.3	12 (5.1%) 10.7 1.3	20 (4.5%)
\$551 - \$800	10 14.9 -4.9	22 17.1 4.9	32 (7.3%)
\$301 - \$550	66 (32.0%) 76.1 -10.1	97 (41.3%) 86.9 10.1	163 (37.0%)
\$300 and less	118 (57.3%) 97.6 20.4	91 (38.7%) 111.4 -20.4	209 (47.4%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:    D.F.:    SIG:    MIN E.F.:    CELLS WITH E.F. <5:

17.618            4            0.002    7.941            None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.





TABLE 35: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ON NUMBER OF SIBLINGS  
(EXCLUDING THE SAMPLE) IN THE FAMILY BY SCHOOL

SIBLING:	FREQUENCY		ROW TOTAL:
	RURAL:	URBAN:	
Seven of more	79 (38.3%) 72.4 6.6	76 (33.2%) 82.6 -6.6	155 (35.1%)
Five - six	68 (33.0%) 66.3 1.7	74 (31.5%) 75.7 -1.7	142 (32.2%)
Three - four	37 (18.0%) 41.1 -4.1	51 (21.7%) 46.9 4.1	88 (20.0%)
One - two	15 (7.3%) 19.6 -4.6	27 (11.5%) 22.4 4.6	42 (9.5%)
None	7 (3.4%) 6.5 0.5	7 (3.0%) 7.5 -0.5	14 (3.2%)
COLUMN TOTAL:	206 (46.7%)	235 (53.3%)	441 (100.0%)

CHI-SQUARE:	D.F.:	SIG.:	MIN E.F.:	CELLS WITH E.F. <1:
4.078	4	0.936	6.540	None

NOTE: The top figure in each cell is the observed frequency, the middle figure the expected frequency, and the bottom figure the residual.

In conclusion, based on the sample data, the results presented in this chapter indicated the presence of relationships between competence and exposure, between the former and attitudes, and between the former and motivation. The correlations displayed were not always very strong and, accordingly, these diminished the

importance of the independent variables as predictors of competence. The data also indicated the presence of significant relationships between competence and extraneous variables such as sex and family socioeconomic status. The latter was of significance for being the only independent variable related to both competence and school. All other independent variables, though related in varying degrees to competence, were not significantly related to school. The competence-school-socioeconomic status relationships could therefore provide clues to the question, i.e. why rural pupils fail to perform as well in English as urban pupils - that school and socioeconomic status are both attributable as factors contributing to the difference in achievement.

## CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

### 6.1 SUMMARY

First, the research set out to investigate the standard of English competence and the degree of some learner variables, i.e. exposure, attitudes and motivation, that affected competence among upper secondary Malay learners of ESL. Second, it set out to investigate the strength of the relationships between the variables under study.

The results revealed that the pupils under study were generally weak in English, their exposure to the language was low, but their attitudes were very favourable and their motivation very strong. In addition, the results revealed that there were relationships between competence and exposure, attitudes, and motivation. The results did not always display very high correlations, and therefore in some cases, diminished the importance of the selected variables as factors affecting competence. Despite the slight correlations, the results did reveal some significant relationships between the variables.

#### Overall Competence:

The scores that the pupils obtained in the English test and the grades they achieved in the SRP English paper revealed their weakness in the language. The

results supported the assumption that the standard of English competence among Malay-medium pupils is generally low.

The criterion of standard as used in this study was therefore the pupils' achievement in the test and the SRP papers. The achievement of the former English-medium pupils could not be treated as the criterion of standard for the purpose of comparison since their English learning environment was highly intensive. Alternatively, the criterion could be the level of competence among learners of ESL (e.g. Malay-medium learners of the 1970s or ESL learners of some other countries) who were similarly learning English as a subject in school, being exposed to the language mainly during English classes.

Unfortunately, even today there still exists a tendency among teachers generally to think of standard in terms of the standard of English competence among the former English-medium pupils and to treat it as a basis of comparison. It is high time for teachers to adjust their expectation of learner performance and to come to terms with the reality of the situation of English as an L2 in this country.

#### **Competence Among Rural and Urban Pupils:**

The results provided sufficient evidence in support of the assumption that there is a difference in the standard of English competence between pupils in rural

and urban schools. The sample from rural schools did not perform as well in English as those from urban schools. This finding therefore accorded with those of previous studies (Chandrasegaran 1979; Rajagopal 1976).

The difference in competence between rural and urban pupils had long been observed by teachers of ESL. Evidence from the sample data suggested that, firstly, the difference was probably due to the difference in the quality of instruction in both types of school. The urban schools had more qualified (or trained) and experienced teachers of English than the rural schools and this might have affected the quality of teaching.

Secondly, the difference was probably the outcome of the difference in family socioeconomic status. Parents of urban pupils were better off economically and educationally and this might have made some impact on pupil achievement.

#### **Exposure:**

The results were in support of the assumption that, generally, Malay-medium pupils receive a low amount of exposure to written English, radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English. The finding therefore accorded with that of Chandrasegaran (*ibid*).

Exposure to written English was minimal since the pupils did not read English books, magazines and newspapers sufficiently. Their contact with spoken English was equally low since they very rarely used the

language when interacting with friends and family members. However, their non-personal and passive contact with the language through radio and television was just slightly higher possibly due to the entertaining nature of the media.

#### Attitudes:

The pupils' attitude towards the TL was generally very favourable and their attitude towards the TL speakers moderately favourable. This finding was again in accordance with that of Chandrasegaran (ibid.). The results therefore were not in support of the assumption that Malay-medium pupils are unfavourable in their attitudes towards the TL and its speakers.

The existence of the negative assumption might probably be due to the failure among some teachers - the inexperienced ones and especially those from different sociocultural and educational backgrounds - to understand the pupils' learning situation and their characteristics as learners. But, sometimes, teachers could not be blamed for this because, even if they teach English, they might have never been trained to teach the language and therefore lack the insight of linguistic, psychological, sociological and methodological aspects of L2 teaching.

In addition, the perceived disinterestedness in learning English among pupils might have been misinterpreted. Such perceived lack of interest is quite often taken for laziness, passiveness, and

unfavourableness of attitudes whereas, in reality, the pupils lack the confidence and are shy of speaking in the language.

Sometimes, it is the environment which is 'hostile' towards English that discourages the pupils from speaking the language while, at the same time, they nurture a secret desire to be able to speak and write in the language. The favourableness of attitudes towards English among pupils is an indisputable fact bearing in mind the ability to use the language is a matter of social pride.

#### **Motivation:**

The 'pupils' degree of instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, and desire to learn were very strong, and their motivational intensity moderately strong. Therefore, the assumption that Malay-medium pupils are insufficiently strong in such motivational variables to learn English was rejected.

In terms of motivational orientation, the pupils were slightly more integratively motivated than instrumentally motivated to learn English. However, results from previous studies were not always constant. In some settings instrumental motivation was slightly stronger than integrative motivation, in other settings it was the contrary; yet in some other settings they were either equally strong or equally weak (Chandrasegaran



1979; Gardner 1960; Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner et al. 1979; Lambert et al. 1963; Strong 1984; Vijchulata & Lee 1984).

#### Relationships Between Exposure and Competence:

There were significant relationships between competence and exposure to written English, exposure to radio and television English and exposure to unscripted spoken English. The low but significant correlations were sufficient to support the hypothesis that pupils who are highly exposed to English are more competent in the language than those who are otherwise. The results were therefore compatible with those of previous studies (Briere 1978; Chandrasegaran 1979; Chesterfield et al. 1983; Hamayan 1977; Seliger 1977; Upshur 1968).

At the same time, it was also observed that the three exposure variables were significantly related to extraneous variables such as encouragement from parents and teachers, sex, and family socioeconomic status (e.g. ERM/ESE with ENCP/ENCT/SEX/FINC/PEDUC and ERT with ENCT). The relationships demonstrated that those who were highly exposed to reading materials in English as well as unscripted spoken English were mostly girls, those from higher socioeconomic status and those who received more encouragement from their parents and teachers. Further, those who were highly exposed to radio and television English seemed to be the ones who perceived their

teachers as more encouraging.

#### Relationships Between Attitudes and Competence:

There was a significant relationship between competence and attitude towards the English language. The result offered support for the hypothesis that pupils with a more favourable attitude towards the TL are more competent in the language than those with less favourable attitude.

But, there was no significant relationship between competence and attitude towards the TL speakers. Therefore, the hypothesis that pupils with a more favourable attitude towards the TL speakers are more competent in the language was rejected.

The finding that attitude towards the TL was more important than attitude towards the TL speakers in terms of relationship with competence accords with those of previous research. Some findings indicated a positive relationship (Chandrasegaran 1979; Rajagopal 1976) and some negative (Pierson et al. 1980). For attitude towards the TL speakers, some findings indicated that there was no significant relationship between the variable and competence (Gardner 1960; Gardner & Lambert 1959; 1972), some showed a positive relationship (Lambert et al. 1963; Oller et al. 1977a), and yet some others showed a significantly negative relationship (Chihara & Oller 1978; Oller et al. 1977b).

In addition, attitudes were also significantly

related to extraneous variables such as encouragement from parents and teachers, sex, and family socioeconomic status (e.g. ATL/ATS with ENCT, ATL with SEX and ATS with ENCP). In other words, those with more favourable attitudes towards English and its speakers perceived their teachers as more encouraging, those with a more favourable attitude towards the TL were mostly girls and those with a more favourable attitude towards its speakers perceived their parents as more encouraging.

#### Relationships Between Motivation and Competence:

There were significant relationships between competence and integrative motivation, desire to learn, and motivational intensity. The results were in support of the hypothesis that pupils who are stronger in their integrative motivation, desire to learn, and motivational intensity are more competent in English. But the relationship between competence and instrumental motivation seemed to be very weak and insignificant. Therefore, the results rejected the hypothesis that the stronger the pupils' instrumental motivation, the more competent they are in English.

The presence of a positive association between competence and motivational intensity was also observed in previous studies (Chandrasegaran 1979; Gardner & Lambert 1972; Rajagopal 1976). Desire to learn was similarly observed to be related to proficiency (Gardner & Lambert 1972). For motivational orientations, previous

studies have shown, in some settings, the importance of integrative motivation over instrumental motivation, in some other settings the latter tended to be more important; but, in some settings neither was important. However, researchers are of the opinion that both motivational orientations are basically important in L2 learning (Chandrasegaran 1979; Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner et al. 1979; Hansen 1981; Lambert et al 1963; Strong 1984; Vijchulata & Lee 1984).

The motivational variables were also observed to be significantly related to a few extraneous variables such as encouragement from parents and teachers as well as sex (e.g. INSTM/INTGM/DES/MINT with ENCT, DES/MINT with ENCP/SEX). Therefore, those who were more motivated to learn were those who perceived their teachers as more encouraging while those with stronger desire and motivational intensity perceived their parents as more encouraging and most of them were girls.

#### Relationships Between Extraneous Variables and Competence:

Lastly, apart from the attitudinal-motivational variables, sex and family socioeconomic status (FINC/PEDUC) also appeared to be significantly related to competence. In other words, those who were more competent in English were those from higher socioeconomic status and, incidentally, most of them were girls. FINC and PEDUC, by virtue of their being the only independent

variables related to both competence and school, were of significance since they could be considered as factors contributing to the difference in competence between pupils in rural and urban schools.

## 6.2 CONCLUSIONS

From the sample data the following conclusions are drawn:

- (1) The standard of English competence among Malay-medium pupils is generally low.
- (2) There is a difference in the standard of English competence between pupils in rural and urban schools, in favour of the latter.
- (3) Malay-medium pupils receive a low amount of exposure to written English, radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English.
- (4) Their attitude towards English is generally very favourable and their attitude towards its speakers moderately favourable.
- (5) Their orientations of motivation and desire to learn are very strong and their motivational intensity moderately strong.
- (6) There are significant relationships between competence and exposure to written English, radio and television English, and unscripted spoken English, i.e. Malay-medium pupils who are more competent in English are highly

exposed to the language.

- (7) There is a significant relationship between competence and attitude towards English, i.e. those who are more competent in English have a more favourable attitude towards the language. But there is no significant relationship between the former and attitude towards the speakers of English.
- (8) There are significant relationships between competence and integrative motivation, desire to learn and motivational intensity, meaning that those who are more competent in English are stronger in their integrative motivation, desire to learn and motivational intensity. However, there is no significant relationship between competence and instrumental motivation.

From the above conclusions, it appears that the standard of competence and the degree of exposure, attitudes and motivation amongst Malay learners of ESL and even the nature of the relationships between the variables themselves are rather specific to Malaysia, determined largely by the existing language situation. The existing situation differs in varying degrees when compared to the situation of the 1970s or earlier (as a consequence of the new education policy implemented in 1970 and the extinction of the English school system in 1980) or even when compared to the situations that exist in some other countries.

### 6.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

The results indicated that the pupils' attitudes towards the English language and its speakers were favourable. Similarly, their motivation in the learning of the language was strong. Therefore, their weakness in English is neither a question of negative attitudes nor the lack of motivation. After all, favourable attitudes are not necessarily a condition for success in L2 learning (Naiman cited in Chandrasegaran 1979) and, as observed in this study, neither is motivation necessarily a condition for success in L2 learning. Their weakness is apparently a question of insufficient exposure to the TL and probably the outcome of some instructional (as well as family socioeconomic) variables.

The low exposure to English among Malay pupils is the outcome of changes in language planning and language policy. With the present status of English as L2, with its role limited chiefly to the sphere of international relations, and added to this, with the extinction of the English school system, direct (or face-to-face) contact with English has reduced tremendously. All these have brought about a negative impact on ESL learning.

All decisions and changes in language planning are made at national level; they are due to sociopolitical pressures motivated by a diverse array of contributory factors which will vary from one society to another (O'Doherty 1975; Tucker 1978). For the purpose of

discussion, changes that have taken place at this level (termed by Tucker as the 'sociocultural context', i.e. the first domain of L2 learning and teaching) could be taken as fixed. People involved in language instruction at local level, i.e. education administrators and teachers (Tucker's second domain which he termed the 'instructional setting'), are mere recipients of policy from the first domain. But, certainly, in the instructional setting, there is still room to manoeuvre.

First, let us consider the common content syllabus. There is no doubt that the '...syllabus provides a sufficient challenge to the "high flier"....' (Rodgers 1979: 16) and the under-achiever has to tail behind as he has to sit for one and the same examination. The syllabus is actually meant as a guide which teachers should adapt to meet the level of a particular class they handle. But, given the constraint of examination requirement, teachers have no alternative but to drill their pupils to examination type questions and exercises. Certainly, in a situation like this, very little teaching or learning is taking place. But, '...the main thing seems to be passing the exam so that the percentage of passes for that year will be maintained at a "decent" level, to keep all concerned happy' (Fernandez 1987: 10).

To improve the situation, individual differences in language learning should be taken into account. This means that, apart from the existing syllabus, there is a necessity to devise a separate 'lower' syllabus for the



under-achievers. Here, the aim of ESL learning to enable pupils to achieve all the four language skills needs to be given second thought. Classes should be conducted with an emphasis on ESP since, taking account of the reality of the present ESL situation in the country, what the majority of pupils need is a basic ability to communicate when called for. Of course, for the proficient pupils, there is no limit to the extent to which they can proceed.

Second, in evaluation, there should be a separate test/examination paper, one based on the existing syllabus and another, based on the lower syllabus so that, at one extreme, there is an advanced paper meant for the proficient learners and, at the other extreme, the lower paper meant for the under-achievers. By this, there will be more pupils who achieve at least a minimum proficiency after many years of learning English, and so that '...nobody is made to feel inadequate or unappreciated for the effort he has made to master the language or at least relevant aspects of it' (ibid.: 10). This might further intensify pupil motivation to learn the TL.

It is unfair to expect all pupils to attempt the same paper since they do not all share the same advantage and the same learning ability. 'There are so many students who try very hard to achieve some measure of success in English, after much prodding and encouragement from their teachers, but after 11 years in schools, many

of them leave with nothing more than an F9 in English as a reward for all their efforts' (ibid.: 10). As it is, it seems the ESL program is a continuous form of pressure to the under-achievers. It is not surprising therefore that pupils who have no hope of passing the subject '...have mentally opted out long before the end of their school career' (Keong 1979: 10).

The suggestion that there should be separate examination papers for different learners implies the necessity for treating English as different from other school subjects which in fact it is. It has to be treated as a special subject to be taught under favoured circumstances.

Third, the possibility of streaming or regrouping pupils has to be looked into since the wide range of learner ability in class is rarely given attention. Officially, the regrouping of pupils according to ability has been discouraged as it brings about various administrative problems. Its effect on the weaker pupils can also be psychologically detrimental when the feeling of being inferior creeps in. However, the existence of a wide range of language ability among pupils which can hinder successful teaching or learning cannot be ignored. As it is, officially, the pupils are streamed according to either the Arts or the Science classes. And at the same time, unofficially, many schools still regroup their pupils according to overall academic achievement. This means that there is a possibility for schools to regroup

their pupils according to ability in individual subjects - in this case ESL. This can narrow the range of language ability of a particular class since the advanced and the weaker pupils are placed in separate classes. No doubt, this will ease the teacher in performing his task as he no longer has to face a class of highly varied language ability, leaving the brighter pupils unchallenged and the weaker pupils neglected.

Fourth, class size has to be reduced although this depends very much on the availability of resources. It was common in the past to see, at all school levels, classes consisting of about 40 to 45 pupils. This was due to the shortage of teachers and classrooms both as the result of a growing number of school children year after year. Though things have improved slightly, a class of about 30 pupils is still common. In such a situation, recall that there exists a wide range of learner ability, a teacher will find it difficult to attend to the individual needs of his pupils. For the ESL teacher, with several classes of English to teach and with so many pupils in a class, a thorough assessment of pupils' work is indeed a heavy burden. The only way out is to reduce the frequency of assignments but this means lack of practice on the part of the pupils, the outcome of which is detrimental to achievement. Further, in the context of Malay-medium schools wherein Malay is dominant, since it is the ESL teacher who is the main conversational partner for the pupils as a resource of

increasing ESL proficiency, the smaller the class size the greater will be the opportunity for teacher-pupil interaction in the TL.

Fifth, the teacher is the key figure in the conduct of L2 teaching. Teacher qualifications need to be improved by sending more teachers for in-service courses or to provide wider opportunities for them to go for further studies. A teacher should have a sound knowledge relating to his subject and to his job. He should '...have acquired an understanding of current theories of language acquisition and be familiar with and attuned to the sociocultural traditions of the students' (Tucker cited in Alptekin 1981: 281). Unfortunately, the language and/or teacher training programmes themselves do not often help develop cross-cultural understanding as part of teachers' pedagogic task (ibid.). In the Malaysian context, this is of prime importance since the ESL teachers are frequently those from different sociocultural backgrounds and are 'alien' to the Malay sociocultural traditions (see Section 4.4.3).

Then the shortage of teachers has to be overcome by training more new teachers. This again depends very much on the availability of resources. Apart from the assistance in the form of volunteer teachers provided by Britain, the possibility of getting assistance from other English-speaking countries should be looked into. Teacher attitudes and teacher expectation of learner performance need to be suitably adjusted to meet the

present ESL learning situation. He must understand his pupils and, on top of it, must be interested in them more than anything else. It is the teacher who determines how well and how much the pupil should learn. An enterprising and creative teacher will always be able to devise and adapt his teaching materials to his pupil's ability. In the hands of a skillful teacher, even unsatisfactory teaching material can be successful in class. However, not all teachers are 'born' teachers - creativity and skill are developed through experience.

Finally, ways and means have to be sought to compensate for the insufficient amount of exposure to the TL, at least in class. This can be possible by providing as much opportunity as possible for the learner to practise speaking in the language. To speak is the best way to learn to speak. The speaking task given should be within the pupil's ability to perform. Success in his performance will create interest and confidence.

Creating situational context and role play can provide opportunity for the learner to practise speaking in the TL (Haycraft 1978). Opportunities to be in the 'real' situation for most pupils are very rare or even non-existent. So, the teacher has to depend on 'simulated' situations in the classroom. 'The situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material...in such a way that there can be no doubt in the learner's mind of the meaning of what he hears' (Pittman 1967). 'The primary value of foreign language

classes...may be, therefore, the creation of a range of situations in which the student may learn the language varieties appropriate to those situations....' (Upshur 1968: 121).

Language laboratories can undoubtedly facilitate aural-oral practice (Dakin 1973; Haycraft 1978; Howatt & Dakin 1974). But, the immense cost of establishing one is beyond the means of the average schools. Currently, language laboratories are only found in tertiary institutions. However, the cassette-recorder can be used as an alternative and, considering its cost, almost all schools should be able to buy one (or more). The ESL teacher should certainly have one as part of his teaching equipment. A cassette-recorder can be a vital tool in listening comprehension exercises. It also provides opportunities for the pupils to listen to other speakers - perhaps even a native speaker of the TL - besides the class teacher. All sorts of teaching materials are available cheaply in the market for aural-oral practice; if none is to the teacher's satisfaction, he could devise his own according to the needs of his class.

The possibility of using a video recorder can also be explored as nowadays it is available cheaply in the market. Currently, most schools are supplied with television sets which could be used with a video recorder. Varied materials can be obtained commercially or borrowed from some educational establishments. Video is apparently superior to audio in helping a pupil

understand what is being said because '...gestures, the physical context and behavioral clues are all present' (Gower & Walters 1983: 163).

There are other varied activities like singing and listening to selected songs, communicational games, group activities, that can be carried out to increase the volume of communicative exercises and at the same time to make English learning more meaningful and enjoyable (Haycraft 1978). Materials from magazines and newspapers could also be adapted and used for teaching. However it is, the use of all the possible teaching aids during the exposure session should be more entertaining in nature so as to create interest. If necessary, the session may be followed by a non-taxing simple discussion the aim of which is again to provide the pupils opportunities to speak in the TL.

Great care must be taken in the correction of errors made by a pupil. 'In one way, oral correction is more difficult than written correction because decisions usually have to be made quickly about what to correct, when to correct, and how much to correct' (Gower & Walters 1983: 147). This is where teacher expertise and understanding of the sensitivity of pupil feelings are called for (Dakin 1973). 'The dubious value of publicly correcting an error has to be weighed against the possible damage done to the self-confidence of a struggling learner in oral production' (Keong 1979: 12).

Given the time constraint of 200-300 minutes per

week for English teaching, the use of situational context in class, audio-visual and other teaching aids would increase the amount of contact with the TL among pupils. The use of such aids is actually nothing new in language teaching, teachers being advised to make full use of them even while under training.

Last, but not least, the school library should be provided with English comic books and selected pop music, movie or sports magazines, apart from the usual materials for heavy reading which the library might have already been filled with. It has been the tradition among school administrators to ban such materials in school premises and therefore the above suggestion might sound radical. But, considering their popularity among youngsters - undoubtedly more for the pictures than for the writing - their availability might also provide the pupils contact with written English. There is a possibility that the pictures would attract them to the writing, however minimal it may be, in order to be able to appreciate the pictures more. School administrators are well aware that most of the time the school library, stuffed with nothing but materials for heavy reading (some in English which, for the majority of pupils, are incomprehensible), attracts only a handful of book-worms. Surely, with the availability of more entertaining materials, the library might be frequented.

It is noted that here no attempt is made to assess the effectiveness of teaching methods. This is not to



imply that methods are of no importance in accounting for learner achievement. Yet, as mentioned in Section 2.1.1, effective L2 learning depends, amongst other things, on the amount of self-practice in and exposure to the TL (Spolsky 1968).

#### 6.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this research, two learner variables have been briefly highlighted and, hence, are possible areas for investigation: one is pupil socioeconomic background and the other sex. Much has been done in investigating the relationship between socioeconomic background and educational achievement but not much attention has been given to its relationship with competence in ESL among Malay learners. Similarly, no serious attention has been given to studying the relationship between sex and competence. Another learner variable that has not been highlighted here and, therefore, another possible area of investigation, is the relationship between educational stream (e.g. Arts and Science) and competence.

The focus of this research was on Malay learners of ESL at the upper secondary school level. No attempt has ever been made to compare attitudes and motivation among such learners with those at the lower secondary level, or those at the primary level. The difference in attitudes and motivation (as a consequence of changes) between pupils at the initial or intermediate learning stage and

those who have been studying English for more than nine years cannot be ruled out and, therefore, should be investigated.

The sample of this research was drawn from two heterogeneous groups of Malay learners of ESL based on school, i.e. rural and urban, the level of competence between them compared, and the relationship between competence and some learner variables ascertained. But, so far, nothing has been done on studying the difference in English competence between heterogeneous groups of learners based on races, e.g. between the Malays, Chinese, and Indians although there have been attempts made on studying the difference in overall academic achievement between them (Ahmad 1979). Therefore, the possibility of conducting research on this aspect should be looked into.

It is also possible to study the difference in English competence between pupils in the West Coast and those in the East Coast of Peninsular Malaysia. There are differences between the two regions in several aspects. Politically, economically, and socially, the West Coast is more advanced than the East Coast. Most of the major towns and cities, prominent schools as well as tertiary institutions are found here. Apart from the Malays, the West Coast is also densely populated by non-Malays. This being the case, the English language is still indisputably dominant in the West Coast. And Selangor, where this research was conducted, is typical

of the West Coast states. The East Coast, conversely, is more rural in character and the population is predominantly Malay. Therefore, in a place where English is totally foreign, the Malay language is most dominant at all strata of society. Certainly, there might be a difference in the level of competence, exposure, attitudes and motivation between learners of ESL in both regions.

A study of the relationship between language planning and L2 competence also needs to be undertaken further. While much has been said of the effects of language planning on competence, and while it is accepted that the gradual decrease in exposure to English has been concomitantly followed by the gradual decline in competence, the question as to how and to what extent planning determines success in L2 learning has not been subjected to thorough and objective investigation.

Two instructional variables, i.e., teacher qualifications and teacher teaching experience have also been briefly highlighted in this research. Perhaps, a more detailed investigation into these aspects, as well as teacher attitudes and their relationships with competence in ESL is worth considering. At the same time, other instructional variables such as teaching methodology, teaching materials, intensity of teaching/learning, and means of evaluation and testing and their roles in L2 learning should be given sufficient attention.

Finally, it is suggested that research be carried out into the roles of a host of environmental and home variables, including parental attitudes and motivation in the children's achievement of ESL proficiency. No comprehensive study has so far been done in these areas.

Perhaps, the results of studies into the areas suggested above, when available, may provide further insight in solving the problems of under-achievement in ESL among pupils in Malaysian schools.

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**APPENDIX A**

**Learner Questionnaire**

Dear student,

This is not a test. This questionnaire has been designed to find out how you feel about learning English at school. Your answers will be read ONLY by the researcher who is interested in your problems in learning English. So it is important that the answers should be about your own situations, experience and feelings.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Pelajar yang dihormati,

Ini bukanlah ujian. Soal selidik ini dibuat untuk mengetahui perasaan anda mempelajari bahasa Inggeris di sekolah. Jawapan anda akan dibaca HANYA oleh penyelidik yang berminat terhadap masalah anda dalam mempelajari bahasa Inggeris. Oleh itu adalah penting sekiranya jawapan tersebut dapat menggambarkan keadaan, pengalaman dan perasaan anda sendiri.

Terima kasih di atas kerjasama anda.

Date:  
Tarikh: ..... 1986

Index number: (leave blank)  
Angka giliran: ..... (tinggalkan kosong)

Name: Date of birth:  
Nama: ..... Tarikh lahir: .....

School:  
Sekolah: .....

SECTION I  
BAHAGIAN I

Circle the letter corresponding to the answer you have chosen from the options for each question below.  
Bulatkan huruf yang sama dengan jawapan yang anda pilih dari pilihan-pilihan untuk setiap soalan di bawah.

1. Sex:  
Jantina:  
  
A. Male  
Lelaki  
  
B. Female  
Perempuan
  
2. Stream:  
Aliran:  
  
A. Arts  
Sastera  
  
B. Science  
Sains  
  
C. Others (specify):  
Lain-lain (nyatakan): .....
  
3. How many brothers and sisters have you (excluding yourself but including your brothers and sisters who are not living at home with you)?  
Berapa orangkah adik-beradik anda (tidak termasuk diri anda tetapi termasuk adik-beradik yang tidak tinggal serumah dengan anda)?  
  
A. Seven or more  
Tujuh atau lebih  
  
B. Five-six  
Lima-enam  
  
C. Three-four  
Tiga-empat

- D. One-two  
Satu-dua
  - E. None  
Tiada
4. What is the monthly income of your parents or guardian?  
Berapakah pendapatan bulanan ibu/bapa atau penjaga anda?
- A. \$1,051 and above  
\$1,051 ke atas
  - B. \$801-\$1,050
  - C. \$551-\$800
  - D. \$301-\$550
  - E. Less than \$300  
Kurang dari \$300
5. What is your parent's or guardian's highest level of education?  
Apakah kelulusan ibu/bapa atau penjaga anda yang tertinggi?
- A. College/university  
Maktab/universiti
  - B. Form Six  
Tingkatan Enam
  - C. Form Four-Form Five  
Tingkatan Empat-Tingkatan Lima
  - D. Form One-Form Three  
Tingkatan Satu-Tingkatan Tiga
  - E. Standard Six and below  
Darjah Enam ke bawah
6. If you have any additional information about yourself to provide, please write briefly below.  
Sekiranya anda mempunyai sebarang maklumat tambahan mengenai diri anda untuk disampaikan, sila tulis dengan ringkas di bawah.

SECTION II  
BAHAGIAN II

Circle the letter corresponding to the answer you have chosen from the options for each question below.

Bulatkan huruf yang sama dengan jawapan yang anda pilih dari pilihan-pilihan untuk setiap soalan di bawah.

7. Do you read books from the school library or from any other sources (e.g. public library, friends, etc.)? Adakah anda membaca buku dari perpustakaan sekolah atau dari sumber-sumber lain (mis. perpustakaan awam, kawan-kawan, dsb.)?
- A. Yes  
Ya
- B. No  
Tidak
8. If NO, proceed to Question 9. If YES, out of the books you read every month, how many are English books? Kalau TIDAK, jawab Soalan 9. Kalau YA, dari buku-buku yang dibaca setiap bulan, berapa buahkah buku dalam bahasa Inggeris?
- A. Four or more  
Empat atau lebih
- B. Two or three  
Dua atau tiga
- C. One  
Satu
- D. Part of one book  
Sebahagian dari sebuah buku
- E. None  
Tiada
9. Does your family buy magazines or periodicals? Adakah keluarga anda membeli majalah atau naskhah berkala?
- A. Yes  
Ya
- B. No  
Tidak

10. If NO, proceed to Question 12. If YES, how many are English magazines or periodicals out of those bought every month?  
 Kalau tidak, jawab Soalan 12. Kalau YA, berapa buahkah dari majalah atau naskhah berkala yang dibeli setiap bulan itu dalam bahasa Inggeris?
- A. Four or more  
Empat atau lebih
  - B. Three  
Tiga
  - C. Two  
Dua
  - D. One  
Satu
  - E. None  
Tiada
11. Name the magazines or periodicals (use the space below):  
 Namakan majalah atau naskhah berkala tersebut (gunakan ruang di bawah):
- .....
- .....
- .....
12. Is any newspaper available in your home?  
 Adakah surat khabar terdapat di rumah anda?
- A. Yes  
Ya
  - B. No  
Tidak
13. If NO, proceed to Question 15. If YES, how many days a week is English newspaper available in your home?  
 Kalau TIDAK, jawab Soalam 15. Kalau YA, berapa harikah dalam seminggu surat khabar dalam bahasa Inggeris terdapat di rumah anda?
- A. Everyday of the week  
Tiap-tiap hari dalam seminggu
  - B. Five or six days  
Lima atau enam hari
  - C. Three or four days  
Tiga atau empat hari



- D. One or two days  
Satu atau dua hari
- E. None  
Tiada

14. Name the newspaper (use the space below):  
Namakan surat khabar berkenaan (gunakan ruang di bawah):

.....

.....

15. Do you watch television?  
Adakah anda menonton televisyen?

- A. Yes  
Ya
- B. No  
Tidak

16. If NO, proceed to Question 18. If YES, how many hours do you spend watching English programmes in an average week? Kalau TIDAK, jawab Soalan 18. Kalau YA, berapa jamkah anda menonton rancangan Inggeris purata dalam seminggu?

- A. Eight hours or more  
Lapan jam atau lebih
- B. Six-seven  
Enam-tujuh
- C. Four-five  
Empat-lima
- D. Two-three  
Dua-tiga
- E. One hour or less  
Satu jam atau kurang

17. When you are watching English programmes, do you listen to the dialogue or read the subtitles?  
Apabila anda menonton rancangan Inggeris, adakah anda mendengar dialognya atau membaca sarikatanya?

- A. Usually listen to the dialogue and never or seldom read the subtitles  
Biasanya mendengar dialognya dan tidak pernah atau jarang-jarang membaca sarikatanya
- B. Usually listen to the dialogue but sometimes read the subtitles  
Biasanya mendengar dialognya tetapi kadang-kadang membaca sarikatanya

- C. Usually read the subtitles but sometimes listen to the dialogue  
Biasanya membaca sarikatanya tetapi kadang-kadang mendengar dialognya
- D. Usually read the subtitles and seldom listen to the dialogue  
Biasanya membaca sarikatanya dan jarang-jarang mendengar dialognya
- E. Always read the subtitles  
Senantiasa membaca sarikatanya
18. Do you listen to Radio Malaysia programmes or any foreign ones?  
Adakah anda mendengar siaran Radio Malaysia atau siaran luar negeri?
- A. Yes  
Ya
- B. No  
Tidak
19. If NO, proceed to Question 20. If YES, how many hours a week do you usually spend listening to local English programmes or those of Radio Singapore, the BBC, the Voice of America, etc?  
Kalau TIDAK, jawab soalan 20. Kalau YA, selalunya berapa jamkah seminggu anda mendengar siaran dalam bahasa Inggeris dari Radio Malaysia, atau dari Radio Singapura, BBC, Suara Amerika, dsb.?
- A. Four hours or more  
Empat jam atau lebih
- B. About three hours  
Kira-kira tiga jam
- C. About two hours  
Kira-kira dua jam
- D. About one hour  
Kira-kira satu jam
- E. None  
Tiada
20. When you talk to your friends who know English, how often do you use English?  
Apabila anda berbual dengan kawan-kawan yang mengetahui bahasa Inggeris, berapa kerapkah anda menggunakan bahasa Inggeris?
- A. Always  
Senantiasa

- B. Very often  
Acapkali
- C. Sometimes  
Kadangkala
- D. Seldom  
Jarang-jarang
- E. Never  
Tidak pernah

21. How often do you use English at home when speaking to members of your family?  
Berapa kerapkah anda menggunakan bahasa Inggeris di rumah apabila bercakap dengan ahli-ahli keluarga anda?

- A. Always  
Senantiasa
- B. Very often  
Acapkali
- C. Sometimes  
Kadangkala
- D. Seldom  
Jarang-jarang
- E. Never  
Tidak pernah

22. What was the first language you learnt at home (before you started schooling)?  
Apakah bahasa pertama yang anda pelajari di rumah (sebelum anda bersekolah)?

- A. English  
Bahasa Inggeris
- B. Malay  
Bahasa Melayu

SECTION III  
BAHAGIAN III

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement to each of the following statements by choosing ONE option from the scale below which best describes your feeling. Then circle the letter corresponding to the option you have chosen.  
Sila nyatakan sama ada anda bersetuju atau tidak dengan setiap kenyataan berikut dengan memilih SATU pilihan dari skala di bawah yang sebenarnya dapat menggambarkan perasaan anda. Kemudian bulatkan huruf yang sama dengan pilihan anda.

A. Strongly disagree  
Sangat tidak bersetuju

B. Disagree  
Tidak bersetuju

C. Uncertain  
Tidak pasti

D. Agree  
Bersetuju

E. Strongly agree  
Sangat bersetuju

23. Malays who can speak English are smarter in their studies than those who can't.  
Orang Melayu yang boleh bertutur dalam bahasa Inggeris lebih bijak di dalam pelajaran daripada mereka yang tidak boleh.

A                      B                      C                      D                      E

24. It is important that our ministers and members of parliament should be able to speak English.  
Amatlah penting bagi menteri dan ahli parlimen kita boleh bertutur dalam bahasa Inggeris.

A                      B                      C                      D                      E

25. When I hear someone speaking English fluently, I wish I could speak likewise.  
Apabila saya mendengar seseorang bertutur dalam bahasa Inggeris dengan fasih, saya harap saya boleh berbuat demikian.

A                      B                      C                      D                      E

26. Malays should not study English because it is synonymous with Christianity.  
Orang Melayu tidak harus mempelajari bahasa Inggeris sebab bahasa tersebut sama ertinya dengan agama Kristian.

A                      B                      C                      D                      E

27. English should be excluded from the school curriculum because it is a colonial language.  
Bahasa Inggeris harus dikeluarkan dari kurikulum sekolah kerana bahasa tersebut bahasa penjajah.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
28. English-speaking people have contributed to the development of Malaysia.  
Orang-orang yang berbahasa Inggeris telah memberi sumbangan terhadap perkembangan Malaysia.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
29. Malays should make a greater effort to meet more English-speaking people.  
Orang-orang Melayu haruslah menguatkan usaha untuk bertemu lebih ramai lagi orang yang berbahasa Inggeris.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
30. English-speaking people are more dependable and more polite than many Malays.  
Orang-orang yang berbahasa Inggeris lebih boleh dipercayai dan lebih bersopan-santun daripada kebanyakan orang Melayu.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
31. English-speaking people are more generous and hospitable to strangers.  
Orang-orang yang berbahasa Inggeris lebih bermurah hati dan melayan orang lain dengan baik.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
32. If Malaysia should lose the influence of English-speaking people, it would be a deep loss.  
Sekiranya Malaysia kehilangan pengaruh orang-orang yang berbahasa Inggeris, itu adalah kehilangan yang amat besar.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E

SECTION IV  
BAHAGIAN IV

Please indicate your true feeling towards each of the following statements by choosing ONE option from the scale below. Then circle the letter corresponding to the option you have chosen. Sila nyatakan perasaan anda yang sebenarnya terhadap setiap kenyataan berikut dengan memilih SATU pilihan dari skala di bawah. Kemudian bulatkan huruf yang sama dengan pilihan anda.

- A. Definitely not my feeling  
Pada perasaan saya tidak sesungguhnya begitu
- B. Not very much my feeling  
Pada perasaan saya tidak begitu
- C. Slightly my feeling  
Pada perasaan saya sedikit-sedikit
- D. Pretty much my feeling  
Pada perasaan saya begitu
- E. Definitely my feeling  
Pada perasaan saya sesungguhnya begitu
33. Knowledge of English is very useful for further studies.  
Pengetahuan bahasa Inggeris sangat perlu untuk melanjutkan pelajaran.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
34. One needs a good knowledge of English to merit social recognition.  
Seseorang itu perlu mempunyai pengetahuan bahasa Inggeris yang baik untuk mendapat pengakuan masyarakat.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
35. I study English because it will some day be useful in getting a good job.  
Saya mempelajari bahasa Inggeris sebab mungkin pada suatu hari nanti bahasa itu perlu untuk mendapat pekerjaan yang baik.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E
36. I feel that no one is really educated unless he is fluent in English.  
Saya rasa tiada seorang pun yang benar-benar terpelajar kecuali ia fasih berbahasa Inggeris.
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E

37. I am studying English so that one day I can visit an English-speaking country and make friends with the people there.  
Saya mempelajari bahasa Inggeris supaya pada suatu hari nanti saya dapat melawat negara yang berbahasa Inggeris dan bersahabat dengan orang-orang di sana.

A B C D E

38. Knowing English will enable me to get good friends more easily among English-speaking people.  
Mengetahui bahasa Inggeris membolehkan saya mendapat sahabat baik dengan lebih senang di kalangan orang-orang yang berbahasa Inggeris.

A B C D E

39. English will help me to understand better the English-speaking people and their way of life.  
Bahasa Inggeris boleh membantu saya memahami orang-orang yang berbahasa Inggeris dan cara hidup mereka dengan lebih baik.

A B C D E

Circle the letter corresponding to the answer you have chosen from the options for each question below.

Bulatkan huruf yang sama dengan jawapan yang anda pilih dari pilihan-pilihan untuk setiap soalan di bawah.

40. When I have English homework to do, I:  
Bila saya ada kerja rumah Bahasa Inggeris untuk dibuat, saya:
- A. Do it immediately when I start my homework  
Membuatnya dengan segera apabila saya memulakan kerja rumah.
  - B. Put it off until all other homework is finished  
Tangguhkan kerja itu sementara menyelesaikan kerja rumah yang lain
  - C. Ignore it until I am reminded by the teacher  
Tidak menghiraukan kerja itu sehinggalah saya diingatkan oleh guru
  - D. Ignore it entirely  
Tidak menghairaukannya sama sekali

41. During English classes, I:  
Semasa kelas Bahasa Inggeris, saya:
- A. Become wholly absorbed in the subject matter  
Melibatkan diri sepenuhnya dalam pelajaran itu
  - B. Have to force myself to keep listening to the teacher  
Memaksa diri saya sendiri untuk memberi perhatian kepada guru
  - C. Become bored  
Menjadi bosan
  - D. Have a tendency to daydream about other things  
Ada kecenderungan mengangan-angankan perkara lain
42. If I had the opportunity and knew enough English, I would read English newspapers and magazines:  
Sekiranya saya berpeluang dan mengetahui bahasa Inggeris dengan secukupnya, saya akan membaca surat khabar dan majalah Inggeris:
- A. As often as I could  
Sebeberapa kerap yang dapat
  - B. Fairly regularly  
Agak selalu
  - C. Probably not very often  
Barangkali tidak berapa kerap
  - D. Not at all  
Tidak langsung
43. If I had the opportunity to change the situation, I would:  
Kalau saya berpeluang mengubah keadaan, saya akan:
- A. Increase the amount of time for English learning  
Menambah jumlah masa untuk belajar bahasa Inggeris
  - B. Keep the amount of time as it is  
Mengekalkan jumlah masa sebagaimana yang ada
  - C. Decrease the amount of time  
Mengurangkan jumlah masanya
  - D. Eliminate the subject entirely  
Membatalkan pelajaran tersebut sama sekali
44. I find English:  
Saya dapati pelajaran Bahasa Inggeris:
- A. Very interesting  
Sangat menarik hati



- B. Interesting  
Menarik hati
  - C. No more interesting than most subjects  
Tidak lebih menarik hati dari mata-mata pelajaran lain
  - D. Not interesting at all  
Tidak menarik hati langsung
45. In my English class, I am: .  
Di dalam kelas Bahasa Inggris, saya:
- A. Always prepared for the lesson having done my homework or read the material we are to cover  
Senantiasa bersedia untuk pelajaran tersebut dengan menyelesaikan kerja rumah atau membaca bahan-bahan yang akan dipelajari
  - B. Sometimes prepared  
Kadangkala bersedia
  - C. Generally not prepared unless I know the teacher will ask for the homework  
Kebiasaannya tidak bersedia kecuali saya pasti guru akan memeriksa kerja rumah saya
  - D. Not prepared at all  
Tidak bersedia langsung
46. If English were not taught in school, I would:  
Kalaulah Bahasa Inggris tidak diajar di sekolah, saya akan:
- A. Try to obtain English lessons somewhere else  
Coba mendapatkan pelajaran Bahasa Inggris di tempat lain
  - B. Pick up English in everyday situations (i.e. read English books and newspapers, try to speak it wherever possible, etc.)  
Belajar Bahasa Inggris dari situasi harian (mis. membaca buku dan akhbar berbahasa Inggris, bertutur bahasa itu di mana mungkin, dsb.)
  - C. Not bother to learn English at all  
Tidak kisah belajar Bahasa Inggris sama sekali
47. I actively think about what I have learned in my English classes:  
Saya sungguh-sungguh mengingatkan apa yang telah saya pelajari di dalam kelas Bahasa Inggris:

- A. Very frequently  
Sangat kerap
  - B. Once in a while  
Sekali-sekala
  - C. Hardly ever  
Hampir tidak pernah
48. On the average, I spent about the following amount of time doing home study in English (include all English homework):  
Secara purata, saya menggunakan jumlah masa untuk belajar Bahasa Inggeris di rumah (termasuk semua kerja rumah Bahasa Inggeris) seperti berikut:
- A. Four hours or more a week  
Empat jam atau lebih seminggu
  - B. More than one hour but less than four hours a week  
Lebih dari satu jam tetapi kurang dari empat jam seminggu
  - C. Less than one hour a week  
Kurang dari satu jam seminggu
49. Considering how I study my English, I can honestly say that I:  
Memikirkan cara saya belajar Bahasa Inggeris, terus terang saya katakan bahawa saya:
- A. Really try to learn English  
Bersungguh-sungguh belajar Bahasa Inggeris
  - B. Do just enough work to get along  
Berusaha setakat cukup sahaja
  - C. Will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work  
Akan lulus disebabkan oleh nasib baik atau oleh kepintaran otak saya, sebab saya kurang berusaha
50. After I finish school, I will probably:  
Selepas tamat sekolah, barangkali saya akan:
- A. Try to use my English as much as possible  
Cuba menggunakan bahasa Inggeris sebanyak mungkin
  - B. Continue to improve my English (e.g. by daily practice, attending private classes, etc.)  
Terus memperbaiki bahasa Inggeris saya (mis. berlatih setiap hari, belajar di kelas swasta, dsb.)
  - C. Make no attempt to remember the English I have learned  
Tidak akan berusaha mengingati bahasa Inggeris yang telah saya pelajari

51. Compared to my other school subjects, I:  
Berbanding dengan mata pelajaran lain di sekolah, saya:
- A. Work harder on English than any other subjects  
Berusaha lebih kuat lagi dalam Bahasa Inggeris dari mata-mata pelajaran lain
  - B. Do as much work in English as I do in any other subjects  
Berusaha dalam Bahasa Inggeris sama kuat dengan mata pelajaran lain
  - C. Do less work in English than any other subjects  
Berusaha dalam Bahasa Inggeris kurang sedikit dari mata pelajaran lain
52. My parents encourage me to study English  
Ibu bapa saya menggalakkan saya mempelajari Bahasa Inggeris
- A. Always  
Senantiasa
  - B. Sometimes  
Kadangkala
  - C. Never  
Tidak pernah
53. My teacher encourages me to study English  
Guru saya menggalakkan saya mempelajari Bahasa Inggeris
- A. Always  
Senantiasa
  - B. Sometimes  
Kadangkala
  - C. Never  
Tidak pernah

**APPENDIX B**

**Teacher Questionnaire**

Dear teacher

This questionnaire is meant to obtain some information on teachers involved in the teaching of English in schools. Your answers will be read ONLY by the researcher who is conducting a survey on the problems of learning ESL among secondary Malay pupils.

You need not write your name on this questionnaire if you want to remain anonymous.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Date: ..... 1986

Index number: ..... (leave blank)

School: .....

Date you first joined the teaching service: .....

Circle the letter corresponding to the answer you have chosen from the options for each question below.

1. Sex:

- A. Male
- B. Female

2. Your academic qualification/s:

- A. SPM
- B. Cambridge OSC/MCE
- C. STP/STPM (Malay-medium)
- D. HSC/STPM (English-medium)
- E. Bachelor degree
- F. Higher degree
- G. Others (specify): .....

3. Your professional qualification/s:

- A. Teacher's Certificate (Normal trained/RTC/LI/MTC/etc)
- B. University diploma in Education
- C. BEd
- D. Higher degree in Education
- E. Others (specify): .....

4. Your English language qualification/s:

- A. SPM (Malay-medium) Special English (before 1977)
- B. SPM (Malay-medium) Communication English
- C. OSC/MCE/GCE English syllabus X/Cambridge GCE English
- D. HSC/STPM Literature in English
- E. Bachelor degree in English

- F. Higher degree in English
- G. Others (specify): .....

5. Are you specially trained to teach English?

- A. Yes
- B. No

6. If YES, what English teaching qualification/s do you possess?

- A. Certificate in TESL/TEFL (a six-month or less training programme)
- B. Diploma in TESL/TEFL/Applied Linguistics (a nine-month or less training programme)
- C. MTC/RTC/Normal Trained (training through the medium of English as English school teachers)
- D. Bachelor degree in TESL/TEFL or Postgraduate Diploma in Education (TESL/TEFL)
- E. Higher degree in TESL/TEFL/Applied Linguistics
- F. Others (specify): .....

7. If NO:

A. Name the subject/s you are specially trained to teach:

.....

B. Why do you teach English? .....

.....

.....

8. How many years have you been teaching English? .....

9. How many English classes are you currently teaching?

- A. Five classes or more
- B. Four
- C. Three
- D. Two
- E. One

10. Why are you teaching the number of classes you teach?  
.....  
.....  
.....
11. Apart from English, are you teaching any other subject/s?  
A. Yes  
B. No
12. If YES, how many classes are you teaching subjects other than English?  
A. Four classes or more  
B. Three  
C. Two  
D. One
13. If you have any additional information to provide, please write briefly below.



**APPENDIX C**

**English Language Achievement Test**

ENGLISH TEST  
UJIAN BAHASA INGGERIS

Time: 2½ hours  
Masa: 2½ jam

SECTION A

Question I

Write a composition about 350 words long on any ONE of the following:

Tulis sebuah karangan panjangnya kira-kira 350 patah perkataan berkenaan salah SATU daripada berikut:

- (1) My ambition
- (2) A rainy day
- (3) Malaysian fruits
- (4) My family
- (5) A picnic

(30 marks)  
(30 markah)

SECTION B

Choose the best or correct answer from options A to D for each question. Then in the answer sheet provided circle the letter corresponding to the answer you have chosen.

Pilih jawapan yang terbaik atau yang betul daripada pilihan A hingga D untuk setiap soalan. Kemudian dalam kertas jawapan yang disediakan bulatkan huruf yang sama dengan jawapan yang anda pilih.

Question II

Read the following passage carefully and then answer ALL the questions that follow.

Baca petikan berikut dengan teliti dan kemudian jawab SEMUA soalan yang mengikutinya.

Four o'clock in the afternoon found us lying at the edge of the rubber in a good position overlooking the road and factory buildings of a rubber estate which the Japs were using as a halting point. Here there was no question of falling asleep, since we lay only a hundred yards from the road and could see the enemy, hundreds of them, pouring eastwards towards the Perak river. The majority were on bicycles in parties of fifty or sixty, talking and laughing as if on their way to a football match. Indeed, some of them were actually wearing football jerseys. They seemed to have no standard uniform or equipment, and were travelling as light as they possibly could. Some wore green, others grey, khaki or even dirty white. The majority had trousers hanging loose or enclosed in high boots or puttees.

Their hats showed the greatest variety: a few tin hats, topis of all kinds, planter's hats, or even little caps with eye shades. Their equipment and arms were equally varied and were slung over themselves or their bicycles with no apparent method. We noticed with delight that their weapons were usually tied on to the frames of the bicycles, so that they would have taken some time to go into action if they had been attacked. Every now and then a convoy of staff cars and lorries would go past, heavily camouflaged with palm fronds. There was little need for this, as the Jap planes seemed unopposed and flew very low up and down the road.

The general impression was one of extraordinary determination. They had been ordered to go to the bridgehead, and in their thousands they were going, though their equipment was second rate and much of it had obviously been collected in Malaya. This was certainly true of their means of transport. We saw several parties of soldiers on foot searching in roadside kampongs, estate buildings and factories for bicycles, and most of the cars and lorries bore local number plates.

Adapted from The Jungle is Neutral by F.S. Chapman

1. Which expression indicates that the writer and his friends were hiding on high ground?
  - A. ...in a good position
  - B. ...overlooking the road
  - C. ...a halting point
  - D. ...lying at the edge
  
2. They were careful not to fall asleep because they
  - A. were facing eastwards
  - B. were near a factory
  - C. would be heard
  - D. might suddenly be attacked
  
3. What was the general feeling among the Japanese troops?
  - A. Carefree
  - B. Cautious
  - C. Fearful
  - D. Tense
  
4. The writer and his friends were delighted over the fact that the Japanese troops had their weapons tied to their bicycles because that made
  - A. the Japanese feel relaxed
  - B. the weapons difficult to get at
  - C. the Japanese careless
  - D. the weapons ineffective

5. Why was there little need for the Japanese to camouflage their cars and lorries?
- A. They were locally licensed vehicles
  - B. They belonged to civilians
  - C. Japanese planes ruled the air
  - D. The Japanese were in an estate
6. Where were the Japanese troops going?
- A. To look for the writer and his friends
  - B. To a rubber factory in the estate
  - C. Towards their main camp
  - D. Towards a bridgehead

(6 marks)  
(6 markah)

Question III

Answer ALL questions.  
Jawab SEMUA soalan.

7. Can I have some milk before I ..... to bed?
- A. go
  - B. am going
  - C. shall go
  - D. goes
8. Mr. Singh ..... the baby while his wife is out shopping.
- A. minding
  - B. mind
  - C. is minding
  - D. had been minding
9. I ..... him to be angry.
- A. am not knowing
  - B. had never been known
  - C. have never known
  - D. has never known
10. The steamer ..... to Hong Kong yesterday.
- A. sails
  - B. sailed
  - C. sail
  - D. has sailed

11. He finished his work when it ..... darker.
- A. getting
  - B. was getting
  - C. has got
  - D. gets
12. I met him in Kuala Lumpur in 1980. I ..... him last five years before.
- A. see
  - B. has seen
  - C. have had seen
  - D. had seen
13. When Mr. Brown came to the school in 1983, Mrs. Gopal ..... there for five years.
- A. had already been teaching
  - B. has already been teaching
  - C. has already taught
  - D. has had taught
14. I ..... him any time next week.
- A. will have seen
  - B. have been seeing
  - C. shall have been seeing
  - D. shall see
15. By the death of Churchill a great statesman ..... lost to England.
- A. are
  - B. have been
  - C. were
  - D. was
16. No nook or corner ..... left unexplored.
- A. has
  - B. was
  - C. have been
  - D. are
17. Politics ..... with him the business of his life.
- A. have been
  - B. was
  - C. were
  - D. are
18. He asked her to marry him two weeks ..... they first met.

- A. when
  - B. until
  - C. till
  - D. after
19. They have only been released ..... two years.
- A. for
  - B. since
  - C. before
  - D. till
20. .... his illness he could not finish the work in time.
- A. As a consequence of
  - B. In compliance with
  - C. In favour of
  - D. Instead of
21. .... talking, prove your worth by doing something.
- A. Due to
  - B. In regard to
  - C. Instead of
  - D. For the sake of
22. He is ..... honest man and deserves to be respected.
- A. a
  - B. the
  - C. an
  - D. none of the above
23. As ..... European, he is not used to the tropical heat.
- A. a
  - B. the
  - C. those
  - D. none of the above
24. Farmers in India, America and Egypt grow ..... cotton.
- A. any
  - B. these
  - C. a
  - D. none of the above

25. My uncle is still in ..... hospital.
- A. these
  - B. an
  - C. those
  - D. none of the above
26. .... robbers must be punished.
- A. That
  - B. This
  - C. Much
  - D. Those
27. .... manner of man is he?
- A. Whatsoever
  - B. Whatever
  - C. Which
  - D. What
28. This is the seaport ..... to Europe.
- A. nearly
  - B. nearest
  - C. nearby
  - D. nearer
29. I had a letter from him .....
- A. lately
  - B. now
  - C. tomorrow
  - D. frequently
30. He ..... comes unprepared.
- A. customarily
  - B. frequently
  - C. will
  - D. once
31. The horses galloped .....
- A. motionlessly
  - B. within
  - C. away
  - D. from
32. This story is ..... written.
- A. beautiful
  - B. pretty
  - C. fine
  - D. well

33. I am sure that you are ..... mistaken.
- A. completely
  - B. clear
  - C. much
  - D. so
34. I've never seen him ..... he left school.
- A. until
  - B. because
  - C. when
  - D. since
35. You must work ..... starve.
- A. therefore
  - B. then
  - C. or
  - D. but
36. He was so tired ..... he could hardly stand.
- A. that
  - B. or
  - C. while
  - D. if
37. A very pretty woman, ..... she squints a little.
- A. only
  - B. because
  - C. how
  - D. either
38. He ..... to move the furniture himself before he leaves.
- A. has
  - B. have had
  - C. was
  - D. have
39. .... I borrow your bicycle?
- A. Will
  - B. Have
  - C. May
  - D. Might
40. Hamid ..... to live there when he was a boy.
- A. has
  - B. got
  - C. used
  - D. ought



41. He is coming .....
- A. of this very moment
  - B. on this very moment
  - C. at that very moment
  - D. at this very moment
42. He hopes .....
- A. to winning the first prize
  - B. to win the first prize
  - C. on winning the first prize
  - D. in winning the first prize
43. .... you will miss the train.
- A. Because you do not hurry
  - B. Although you do not hurry
  - C. Until you do not hurry
  - D. If you do not hurry
44. That was the reason .....
- A. because he came late
  - B. since he came late
  - C. why he came late
  - D. although he came late
45. Do you deny .....
- A. in that you are stealing the watch?
  - B. because you stole the watch?
  - C. you had been stealing the watch?
  - D. that you stole the watch?
46. Active: My captors were taking me to prison.  
Passive: .....
- A. I am being taken to prison by my captors
  - B. I am to be taken to prison by my captors
  - C. I was being taken to prison by my captors
  - D. I shall be taken to prison by my captors
47. Passive: It is time for the shop to be closed.  
Active: .....
- A. It was almost time to close the shop
  - B. It is time to have closed the shop
  - C. It was time to have closed the shop
  - D. It is time to close the shop

48. Direct: He said, "I have passed the examination."  
Indirect: .....

- A. He says that he has passed the examination
- B. He said that he had passed the examination
- C. He had said that he passed the examination
- D. He says that he passes the examination

49. Indirect: He requested her to wait there till he came back.

Direct: He said to her, "....."  
....."

- A. Please wait here till I come back
- B. I'll wait here till you come back
- C. You have to wait here till I come back
- D. You are supposed to wait here till I come back

(43 marks)

(43 markah)

ENGLISH TEST ANSWER SHEET  
KERTAS JAWAPAN UJIAN BAHASA INGGERIS

Date:  
Tarikh: ..... 1986

Index number: (leave blank)  
Angka giliran: ..... (tinggalkan kosong)

Name: Date of birth:  
Nama: ..... Tarikh lahir: .....

School:  
Sekolah: .....

Tick (✓) the appropriate box:  
Coretkan (✓) kotak yang sesuai:

Sex:  
Jantina:

<input type="checkbox"/>	Male Lelaki
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female Perempuan

Stream:  
Aliran:

<input type="checkbox"/>	Arts Sastera
<input type="checkbox"/>	Science Sains
<input type="checkbox"/>	Others (specify): Lain-lain (nyatakan): .....

SRP English Grade:  
Gred Bahasa Inggeris SRP:

<input type="checkbox"/>	A1
<input type="checkbox"/>	A2
<input type="checkbox"/>	C3
<input type="checkbox"/>	C4
<input type="checkbox"/>	C5
<input type="checkbox"/>	C6
<input type="checkbox"/>	P7
<input type="checkbox"/>	P8
<input type="checkbox"/>	F9

QUESTION:  
SOALAN:

OPTION:  
PILIHAN:

QUESTION:  
SOALAN:

OPTION:  
PILIHAN:

1	A	B	C	D	26	A	B	C	D
2	A	B	C	D	27	A	B	C	D
3	A	B	C	D	28	A	B	C	D
4	A	B	C	D	29	A	B	C	D
5	A	B	C	D	30	A	B	C	D
6	A	B	C	D	31	A	B	C	D
7	A	B	C	D	32	A	B	C	D
8	A	B	C	D	33	A	B	C	D
9	A	B	C	D	34	A	B	C	D
10	A	B	C	D	35	A	B	C	D
11	A	B	C	D	36	A	B	C	D
12	A	B	C	D	37	A	B	C	D
13	A	B	C	D	38	A	B	C	D
14	A	B	C	D	39	A	B	C	D
15	A	B	C	D	40	A	B	C	D
16	A	B	C	D	41	A	B	C	D
17	A	B	C	D	42	A	B	C	D
18	A	B	C	D	43	A	B	C	D
19	A	B	C	D	44	A	B	C	D
20	A	B	C	D	45	A	B	C	D
21	A	B	C	D	46	A	B	C	D
22	A	B	C	D	47	A	B	C	D
23	A	B	C	A	48	A	B	C	D
24	A	B	C	D	49	A	B	C	D
25	A	B	C	D					

APPENDIX D

Table 36

TABLE 36: TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE, MEAN SCORE, STANDARD DEVIATION, MINIMUM SCORE, MAXIMUM SCORE AND RANGE ON EXPOSURE, ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION SCALES

VARIABLE:	TOTAL:	MEAN:	S.D.:	MIN:	MAX:	RANGE:
ERM	12	2.306	2.195	0	11	11
ERT	12	5.129	2.119	0	12	12
ESE	9	2.170	1.382	0	6	6
ATL	20	15.372	2.408	7	20	13
ATS	20	10.102	2.666	2	19	17
INSTM	16	10.306	2.735	1	16	15
INTGM	12	8.497	2.341	0	12	12
DES	18	14.152	2.691	7	18	11
MINT	12	6.308	2.091	0	11	11

TOTAL SAMPLE: 441

Abbreviations:

ERM Exposure to written English  
ERT Exposure to radio and television English  
ESE Exposure to unscripted spoken English  
ATL Attitude towards English language  
ATS Attitude towards speakers of English  
INSTM Instrumental motivation  
INTGM Integrative motivation  
DES Desire to learn  
MINT Motivational intensity